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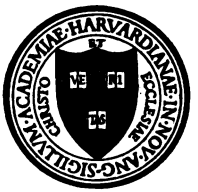

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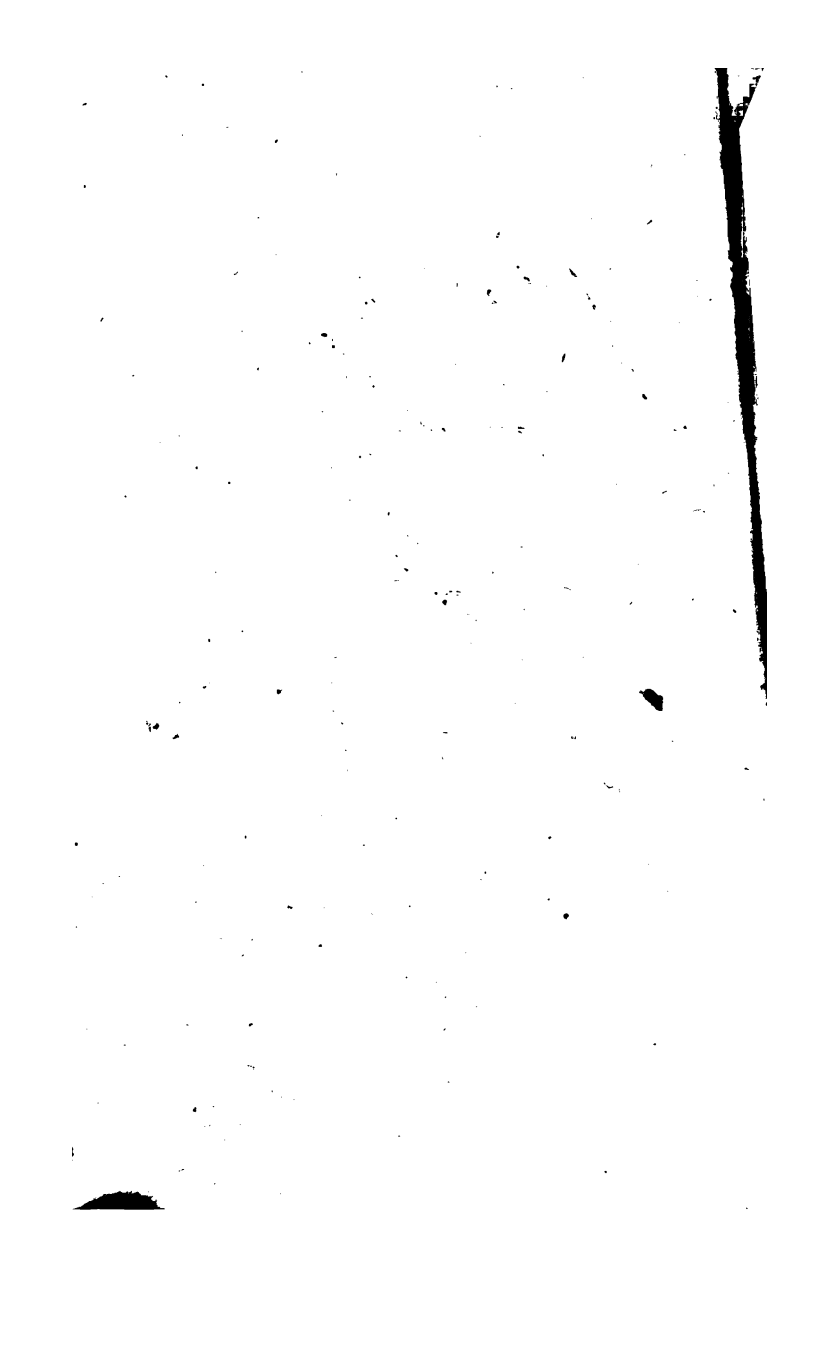

ELEMENTS

OF

USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

VOLUME II.

CONTAINING A

HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL

ACCOUNT OF THE

UNITED STATES.

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. ESQ.

"Among the various branches of science, which constitute the education of American citizens, that of government is highly important and necessary—At present, too little attention is paid to this kind of education. While the governments of Rome, Sparta and Athens, are industriously taught; while the institutions of Lycurgus and Solon form important features of public education, the constitutions of our own country are scarcely read—Our youth in schools and colleges will be encouraged to devote some of their time to this necessary science, by finding it simplified and methodized."—*Smith's Comparative view of the Constitutions.*

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BE it remembered, that on the third day of March, in the twenty-ninth year of the Independence of the United States of America, Noah Webſter, jun. of ſaid diſtrict, Eſq. hath depoſited in this office, the title of a book the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, (viz.) "Elements of Uſeful Knowledge, Volume II, containing a Hiſtorical and Geographical Account of the United States: for the uſe of Schools, by Noah Webſter, jun."— in conformity to the act of the Congreſs of the United States, entitled, An Act for the encouragement of learning, by ſecuring the copies of maps, charts and books, to the authors and proprietors of ſuch copies, during the times therein mentioned.

CH's DENISON, Clerk of the Diſtrict of Connecticut

Connecticut, ſſ. Diſtrict Clerk's Office.

The foregoing is a true copy of Record,
Teſt, CH's DENISON, Clerk.

PREFACE.

THIS volume of the *Elements of Useful Knowledge*, begins with a continuation of the history of the United States, from the commencement of the Revolution, and brings it down to the adoption of the present constitution, and the organization of the government in 1789. It then proceeds to exhibit the present condition of the United States, and of the several states, as separate governments. To avoid the repetitions which occur so frequently in geographical descriptions, I have first given a general view of those things which are common to all the states; and arranged, under the head of each state, descriptions of things which are peculiar to each. This plan, though from the nature of things it cannot be rendered perfect, has nevertheless enabled me to compress many parts of the work into a smaller compass than usual, and to avoid in part that tedious sameness which characterises treatises of this kind.

The brief view given of the constitution of the several states, will, it is presumed, be well received; as nothing can be more proper for the instruction of youth, than a correct epitome of the principles on which the local governments are founded. The object of the citizens of the several states, is, to secure life, property and rational freedom; and an exhibition of the various modes by which the citizens of different sections of the union, have attempted to secure these invaluable blessings, must be no less entertaining than

uſeful. The conſtitutions, being the work of the ableſt ſtateſmen in the United States, ought to be viewed with reſpect, and ſtudied with attention.

This volume completes the view of the United States —which, as being of moſt importance to the youth of this country, occupies a larger portion of the work, than will be appropriated to a deſcription of the other parts of the earth. The two firſt volumes are cloſely connected, and ought to be uſed together; but the ſucceeding volumes will be more diſtinct, and may be ſeparated without inconvenience to the reader.

New Haven, 1804.

Elements of Useful Knowledge.

HISTORICAL EVENTS.

SECTION XIV.

Of the remote Causes of the Revolution.

THE first planters of New-England were all dissenters from the church of England, who declined to conform to its ritual and ceremonies, and by their opposition, called down upon their heads the vengeance of archbishop Laud. To get rid of such turbulent subjects, was rather to be desired, than dreaded, by the king and court. But within a few years, the numerous emigrations from England alarmed the government, and orders were issued to stop the sailing of ships bound to America. These orders however were temporary, and most or all those men departed from England, who wished to settle in a country, where they might be exempt from arbitrary government. As the plantations increased, and became respectable, the court of England began to be alarmed with the apprehension, that the colonies would become wholly independent of the parent state.

Of the Measures taken to prevent the Independence of the Colonies. With a view to secure the dominion of England over the colonies, in ecclesiastical as well as civil affairs, king Charles *the first* granted a commission, dated April 10, *1634, by which* he empowered the two archbishops, with

certain other persons, to superintend the colonies, to erect courts, civil and ecclesiastical, to remove governors for causes which to them should seem meet, to inquire into the conduct of all officers, to punish offences with fine and imprisonment, to make and repeal laws and revoke charters. This extraordinary commission excited great alarm in the infant colonies, but the inhabitants determined to resist the execution of it; and on receiving intelligence that a governor, appointed by the commissioners, would proceed to America, the government of Massachusetts hastened the fortifications in Boston harbor.—It does not appear that any attempt was made to enforce this commission.

Of the Colonies under Charles the first, and the Commonwealth. During the reign of Charles the first, the colonies were frequently alarmed with the report of some act of the English government, to abridge their freedom. Their enemies represented the people as aiming at an entire independence, and a plan was devised and nearly matured, to deprive the colonies of their charters, and place over them a general governor. Probably the disputes and civil war in England, were among the causes which frustrated that plan. After king Charles was beheaded, and the government of England assumed the shape of a commonwealth, the colonies were relieved from their apprehensions, and the Protector, Cromwell, appeared to favor the views and interests of the settlers in America. Under his administration however, the parliament passed an act for encouraging the commerce of England, which was the ground work of the famous Navigation Act in 1660, which restrained the trade of the colonies, and was the means of drying up the sources of their prosperity.

Of the State of the Colonies under Charles the second. Upon the restoration of the monarchy in England, the colonies submitted, and sent addresses, congratulating the king on his accession to the throne. Connecticut and Rhode-Island obtained charters with ample privileges, and so well pleased was the king with the respectful manner in which they

treated him, that he wrote letters, giving moſt flattering aſſurances that he would protect the colonies, in all their chartered rights. He alſo appointed commiſſioners to examine the ſtate of the colonies, and decide controverſies between them. The king required that the laws derogatory to the crown ſhould be repealed; that free liberty ſhould be given to uſe the common prayer, and the ſervice of the Church of England; that all perſons of honeſt lives, ſhould be admitted to the ſacrament, and their children to baptiſm; and that magiſtrates ſhould be choſen and freemen admitted, without regard to opinions and profeſſions of religion. The king required alſo that every perſon in the plantations ſhould take the oath of allegiance to his majeſty.—Theſe requiſitions gave the colonies ſome alarm, and indicated that the king was apprehenſive the people intended to become independent. The union of the four colonies was regarded by the crown with an eye of jealouſy, but the people aſſured the king's agents, that it was not intended for the purpoſe of caſting off a dependence on England.

Of the Oppoſition to the Navigation Act. No meaſure of the Engliſh court or parliament excited more diſcontent, or was reſiſted with more firmneſs, by the firſt ſettlers, than the law for regulating the trade of England and the colonies, firſt enacted by the parliament, in 1651, during the adminiſtration of Cromwell, and in 1660, re-enacted by the king and parliament, with conſiderable additions. By this act, all trade with England and the colonies was reſtricted to Engliſh ſhips, the maſter of which and three-fourths at leaſt of the ſeamen, were to be Engliſh; and the colonies were prohibited from ſhipping many of their moſt valuable articles to any ports, but to England, where they were to be landed, before they could be ſent to market in any other country. This regulation threw the advantages of the colonial trade into the hands of the Engliſh; but deprived the colonies of their beſt markets.—The colonies oppoſed the execution of it many years; *at length, in 1680*, governor Leet of Connecticut ſubmit-

ted, and took the oath required. But Massachusetts was more obstinate, and her opposition was one of the reasons for vacating her charter. She finally submitted to the regulations, by passing a law requiring them to be observed, but denied the right of parliament to bind the colonies to observe them.

Of the Agency of Randolph. The king, determined to enforce the Navigation Act, sent over Edward Randolph, with powers to inspect the conduct of the colonies, to make seizures for breaches of the act, and in short, to be a common informer. This man made it his business to collect charges against the colonies, and return to England to excite the jealousy of the English government. In this manner, the way was prepared for annulling the charters of the colonies, and the appointment of Sir Edmond Andros, as governor general over New-England and New-York. This was the consequence of a determination in the king and ministry to check and subdue the growing spirit of independence in the colonies; but Andros overacted his part; and his tyrannical proceedings only served to alienate the people's affections from the parent state, and prepare the way for that independence which the king dreaded.

Of the Colonies under King William and Queen Anne. The colonies under Charles and James, had been despoiled of their charters, and suffered the tyranny of Andros with a spirit of just indignation. King William was more favorable to the colonies; Connecticut resumed her old charter, and Massachusetts obtained a new one, in which the king retained the power of appointing the governor, and the governor was vested with the power of negativing the choice of councillors, made by the house of representatives. It was supposed that this power in the king would secure a predominant influence to the crown over the legislature and colony. But it had the contrary effect, and created a fruitful source of animosity between the two branches of the legislature, which ended only with the revolution.—*The governor and council* were the advocates for the ex-

tenſion of royal prerogative; the houſe of repreſentatives was confided in, as the guardian of the rights of the people. In queen Ann's reign a new attempt was made to aboliſh the colony charters, and place the appointment of a general governor in the crown, but is was fruſtrated.

Of Controverſies in the Colony of New-York. The government of New-York, like that of Maſſachuſetts, was what was called a royal government; the king appointed the governor, who had the power of approving the ſpeaker of the houſe of repreſentatives. But in this kind of government the aſſembly was bound to provide the governor with his ſalary. This was an unceaſing ſource of diſcord. When a good underſtanding did not ſubſiſt between the governor and the aſſembly, which often happened, the aſſembly would withhold a grant of the governor's ſalary, to compel him to give his aſſent to ſome favorite bill of their's—the governor, on the other hand, if he wiſhed to obtain a large grant, or to carry ſome favorite point, would withhold his aſſent to their favorite bills, until they had complied with his wiſhes.

Of the Controverſies in Pennſylvania. By the charter of Pennſylvania, the proprietary and his heirs and aſſigns, were governors of the province; the council and aſſembly were to be choſen by the freemen. But in ſales of land, the proprietary not only took purchaſe-money, but reſerved an annual quit-rent, with the pretext of furniſhing the means of ſupporting the government with dignity. The proprietary himſelf ſeldom reſided in America, but delegated a ſubſtitute, to act in the capacity of preſident or governor, who had a treble vote in enacting laws. In a few years, controverſies aroſe between the governor and the aſſembly; and the governor prevailed on certain members to withdraw from the houſe, to prevent the paſſing of laws diſagreeable to him. This the aſſembly voted to be treachery. In ſhort, that province was diſtracted by diſputes between the governor and aſſembly, reſpecting ſupplies of money, ſalaries, quit-rents, paper currency, and *other matters, from* the firſt ſettlement to the revolution.

A history of these dissentions, written by Dr. Franklin, forms a large volume.

Of the Controversies in Carolina. By the original constitution of Carolina, the governor and principal civil officers were appointed or approved by the proprietors, in the Palatine's court in England. As early as the year 1687, a controversy arose between governor Colleton and the house of assembly, respecting the tenure of lands and the payment of quit-rents. The governor demanded the rent, although not one acre of land in a thousand was cultivated—the payment proved burdensome—and the people declined it. Hence arose a contention, which did not end, till the assembly renounced the authority of the governor, and held assemblies in opposition to him. This ferment subsided, in a degree, under the governors Ludwell and Archdale. But the interest of the proprietors, who urged for rents, and attempted to restrain the authority of the people, by repealing all laws that enlarged the powers of the assembly, or abridged their own, was so repugnant to the wishes and demands of the colony, that it was impossible to preserve harmony, and in 1719 the people revolted.

Of the Dissolution of the Proprietors' Charter. The people gave notice to governor Johnson of their intention to throw off the yoke of the proprietors, elected deputies to the assembly, which was held in opposition to the governor's authority; and notwithstanding his popularity and remonstrances, the assembly openly declared their intention to renounce the authority of the proprietors, and submit to the crown. The governor attempted to dissolve the assembly, but they ordered the proclamation to be torn from the marshal's hand. They proceeded to elect James Moore their governor, and he was proclaimed with applauses. An account of these proceedings being transmitted to England, the Carolinians had a hearing before the council of regents, (the king being in Hanover) who decided that the proprietors had done acts that amounted to *a forfeiture* of their charter, which was accordingly

annulled in 1720, and Carolina taken under royal government. The crown, in 1728, purchased the property of seven of the owners, for seventeen thousand, five hundred pounds.

General Remarks on the foregoing Facts. From the history of the colonies, it appears that the principles of their opposition to the parent state, were mostly planted in the minds of the first settlers, or in their primitive constitutions of government. In New-England, an enmity to the ecclesiastical power of the English church naturally fostered an enmity to monarchy; and this enmity was increased by repeated attempts of the crown to establish its power and prerogatives in the colonies. This enmity gradually matured into habitual and systemized opposition, which was greatly encouraged and confirmed by the speculations on government found in the writings of Locke, Sidney and others. The authority of these authors was reinforced by the parliamentary discussions on royal prerogative and popular liberty, at the revolution in England. In the proprietary and royal governments, the endless contentions between the governors and assemblies, encouraged a spirit of investigation into the extent of the power of the crown, and formed the principle of opposition into habit. The open rupture therefore between Great Britain and the colonies, was not the sudden effect of a tumultuous opposition to a particular act of parliament, but the effect of hostile principles and habits which had grown out of a long series of events, and which a few measures of the British government ripened into action.

Of the immediate Causes of the Revolution. The proceedings of the British parliament, which manifested a settled determination to keep America subject to the crown, and subservient to the interests of Great Britain, were the direct causes of an opposition to her claims, which ended in an appeal to arms. As early as 1750, an act was passed in parliament, to encourage the exportation of iron in pigs and bars, from America to London; and to prevent the erecting of any mill in the colonies for slitting or rolling

iron, or any plating forge, or furnace for making steel.—The purpose of the British government was to check the growth of manufactures in the colonies, and to compel them to export their iron, and import the manufactures of England. This arbitrary law was enforced, to the destruction of some machines of the kinds mentioned, and the dissatisfaction of the colonies.

Of the Stamp Act. After the peace of 1763, the British parliament formed a plan of raising a revenue by taxing the colonies. The pretext for it, was to obtain indemnification for the great expenses of Great Britain in defending the colonies, and to enable her to discharge the debt incurred in the preceding war. But a more influential motive, was to check the increasing spirit of opposition, which, it was apprehended, would, in time, mature into a revolt; the parliament, therefore, determined to assert its sovereignty and establish the immediate exercise of authority over the colonies. For this purpose, an act was passed for laying a duty on all paper, vellum or parchment, used in America, and declaring all writings on unstamped materials to be null and void. This act received the royal assent on the 22d. of March, 1765.

Of the Reception of the Stamp Act in America. When the news of the stamp act reached the colonies, the people every where manifested alarm, and a determination to oppose its execution. The assembly of Virginia first declared its opposition to the act, by a number of spirited resolves; but Massachusetts took the lead in this important crisis, and maintained it in every stage of the subsequent revolution. In all the colonies however, the determined spirit of resistance prevented the execution of the act. The stamp-masters were burnt in effigy—and popular tumults succeeded. In Boston, the friends of the British measures, and the crown officers were insulted; their houses demolished; and among other damages, the populace destroyed a valuable collection of original papers, concerning the history of the colonies, which governor Hutchinson had made, and *intended to publish.* This loss was irreparable. To render

the oppofition complete, the merchants aſſociated, and agreed to a reſolution not to import any more goods from Great Britain, until the ſtamp law ſhould be repealed.

Of the Principles in which the Parliament and the Colonies Acted. The Britiſh parliament, previous to the repeal of the ſtamp law, paſſed an act declaring that "they had, and of right ought to have, power to bind the colonies in all caſes whatſoever"——They alleged that the colonies were planted by their care, nouriſhed by their indulgence, and protected by their arms, and their money——And therefore the colonies owed allegiance, ſubjection and gratitude to the parent ſtate. The colonies denied very juſtly that they were planted by the Britiſh government. Not one of them was ſettled at the expenſe of the crown; but with a vaſt expenſe of individuals, and with hardſhips and ſufferings beyond deſcription or credibility. Nor did the government of England expend any money or furniſh any force for protecting the colonies, for ſixty years after the ſettlement of Plymouth. On the other hand, the government neglected the colonies, while feeble and poor; and did not extend a protecting arm, until the colonies had conquered and expelled ſeveral Indian tribes—had overcome the difficulties of ſettlement—had acquired a good degree of ſtrength, and began to have a valuable commerce. Then the government of England lent aſſiſtance to defend the colonies, and ſecure to herſelf a beneficial trade.

Of the Grounds on which the Colonies oppoſed the Stamp Act. The colonies always acknowledged themſelves ſubjects of the crown of Great Britain, until the declaration of Independence; and were moſt loyal and affectionate ſubjects, until the Parliament aſſerted the right of laying internal taxes on them, without admitting them to a ſhare of repreſentation. The great principle, aſſerted by the friends of liberty in parliament, that "taxation and repreſentation are inſeparable," was univerſally embraced and maintained in America; and the colonies denied the right of the parliament to tax them without their conſent. In vain *did the miniſtry* alledge that a revenue raiſed in America

would be expended in supporting government and defending the colonies. The assemblies wished not to have the taxes raised by Great Britain, nor to be at her disposal.

Of the Congress at New-York. To give system and efficacy to the colonial opposition to the stamp act, Massachusetts proposed a meeting of deputies from the several colonies, to be held at New-York in October 1765. Accordingly deputies from nine of the colonies assembled in congress at New-York, and after deliberation, agreed on a declaration of their rights and grievances---asserted their exemption from taxes not imposed by their own representatives---and sent a petition to the king, with memorials to both houses of parliament. This spirited opposition, seconded by the energetic eloquence of Mr. Pitt and other friends of America, produced a repeal of the stamp law, on the 18th of March 1766. The news of this event was received in America, with bonfires, ringing of bells, and other unusual demonstrations of joy.

Of the duties on Glass, Paper, Paints, and Tea. Not discouraged by the fate of the stamp act, the British ministry persisted in their design of raising a revenue in America; and in 1767, an act was passed, for laying duties on glass, painters colors, paper, and tea, imported into the colonies. To render the act effectual, a custom-house was directed to be established in America, with a board of commissioners to superintend the revenues, and to reside at Boston. These duties were small, but the colonists objected to the principle, rather than to the amount, of the tax; and remonstrated against the act. A second association was formed for suspending the importation and consumption of the goods on which the duties were charged, and other British manufactures. These measures of Massachusetts were adopted by the other colonies, and a circular letter from Boston had its influence in giving concert and consistency to the opinions and proceedings of the colonial assemblies. This opposition, supported by petitions and remonstrances in January 1770, procured an abolition of *all the duties, except* that of three pence on every pound of tea.

Of the Causes of Smuggling. The enterprizing commercial spirit of the people in America, bore, with extreme impatience, the severe regulations imposed on their trade, which prevented their seeking the best markets, and poured all the profits of a thriving commerce into the bosom of the parent state. So unjust and tyrannical were these restrictions considered, that smuggling goods to evade the duties, was deemed honorable and greatly encouraged.—In 1768, the revenue officers seized a sloop, in Boston harbor, for attempts to smuggle wine. The populace assembled with a view to rescue the sloop, but she was moored under the protection of a British ship of war. The populace then attacked the houses of the commissioners, who saved themselves by flight to the castle.

Of the first Armed Force sent to support the Acts of Parliament. The ministry, finding all mild efforts to establish their authority, in regard to a revenue, unavailing, sent four regiments of troops to be stationed at Boston, to overawe the inhabitants, and assist the crown officers to enforce the obnoxious acts of parliament. The arrival of these in 1768 gave no small uneasiness to the colonies, but no opposition was then made. The ministry also gave orders to station armed ships in the principal ports to prevent smuggling. An armed schooned, called the Gaspee, was stationed in Providence river, where she was burnt in 1772 by an exasperated populace. A large reward was offered for the discovery of the offenders, but no discovery was made.

Of further Measures to enforce Obedience. In 1769, the parliament passed an act to revive the provisions of a statute enacted in the arbitrary reign of Henry 8th; by which persons charged with treason in any of the colonies, might be arrested and sent to England for trial. The gross injustice of this act, augmented the clamor against the ministry in Great Britain, and served only to exasperate still more, the minds of the Americans. This impolitic act alone would have raised a rebellion in the colonies. Indeed the spirit of opposition increased, in proportion to the determination of the British ministry v

compel submission, and the differences became irreconcilable.

Of the Massacre in 1770. To a free and high spirited people, the presence of an insolent military, could not but be extremely irksome and provoking: and it was not possible that harmony could long subsist between the inhabitants of Boston, and the British troops. A slight affray took place between them on the second of March 1770; but on the night of the fifth, the enmity of the parties burst forth in violence and blood. A body of troops being ordered to disperse a number of the citizens of Boston, who were collected in Cornhill, the populace pelted them with stones: upon which the troops fired among them, killed three and wounded five, two of whom died. With great difficulty, the soldiers were saved from the fury of an enraged populace. But this outrage enflamed the animosity of the Americans against Great Britain, and hastened a more important crisis. To commemorate this melancholy tragedy, an anniversary oration was instituted in Boston, and was annually pronounced by some distinguished citizen on the 5th of March, till the close of the revolution.

Of the Destruction of Tea at Boston. Although the duties laid on commodities imported into America, had been taken off, except the duty on tea, yet the ministry persisted in maintaining the right to raise a revenue in the colonies; and to establish that principle, granted permission to the East India company to ship to America, a large quantity of tea, charged with the duty. This finess of the ministry did not succeed. The Americans, determined to resist the principle of taxation in every shape, opposed the landing of the tea—in some ports they obliged the consignees to resign their employment, and compelled the ships to return to England without landing their cargoes. In Boston, the populace had less temper, and a party, disguised in the dress of Indians, went on board the tea ships, and threw the tea into the sea. This transaction, *which amounted to an open* resistance of the government *of Great Britain, and* led to more energetic measures, on

the part of that government, happened in the year 1773.

On the Measures of Parliament relating to Massachusetts. In pursuance of the ministerial plan of reducing Massachusetts to obedience, an act of parliament was passed for regulating the government of that province; by which the powers of the people were abridged, and the officers of government made dependent on the crown for their appointments and salaries. By another act, persons indicted for murder or other capital offense, might, if the governor should think an impartial trial could not be had in the colony, be sent to Great Britain to be tried. By another act, an attempt was made to strengthen the interest and power of the crown in America, by enlarging the province of Canada, and granting unusual privileges to the Catholics. All which measures tended only to increase the jealousy of the colonies, by developing the views of the ministry.

Of the Boston Port Bill. In 1774, the parliament, with a view to punish the refractory province of Massachusetts, and especially the inhabitants of Boston, as also to bring them to submission, passed an act to shut the port of Boston, and to restrain all intercourse with the town by water. The government and public offices were removed to Salem, and it was expected by the ministry that Salem would be pleased with the prospect of enjoying the advantages of being the seat of government and the center of trade. But this miserable stratagem had no effect, but to irritate the inhabitants of Salem, who disdained to thrive on the ruins of Boston. These proceedings, added to the detection of some letters which had been written by the crown officers in Boston, advising to more decisive measures against the colonies, raised a ferment in America that left little hope of a reconciliation.

Of the Committee of Correspondence. During the transactions which have been related, some of the most able and distinguished patriots in Massachusetts, who had long seen the necessity of a separation from Great Britain, but who *wished, if* possible, to avoid an alternative that must involve the country in a sanguinary contest, formed them

selves into a committee of correspondence, for the purpose of obtaining and diffusing correct information, for uniting opinions and acting in unison with their fellow patriots in other colonies. This committee received advices regularly from their friends in Great Britain, which enabled them to be prepared, and to prepare the public mind, for every exigency. Similar committees were established in all the other New-England colonies, and became the ground-work of their future union.

Of the arrival of General Gage, and his reception. In May 1774, General Gage arrived in Boston, with the commissions of Governor of Massachusetts, and commander in chief of the British forces. At the moment of his arrival, the people were in great agitation, at the news of the port bill; notwithstanding which, the general was received with respect and treated with politeness. Shortly after, arrived two more regiments, with artillery and miltary stores, indicative of the determination of the British government to reduce the colonies to submission by the force of arms.

Of the Conduct of the Colonies on this occasion. When the Americans saw, by the measures of the British government, that reconciliation was no longer to be expected, and that their rights were to be defended by an appeal to force, deploring the awful event, but confident of the justice of their cause, and the rectitude of their purposes, they set apart a day of humiliation and prayer, to invoke the Supreme Being and manifest their dependence on him for support in the arduous contest. And as the port bill had put an end to the trade of Boston, and thus deprived the inhabitants of the means of subsistence, the inhabitants of the colonies, opened the hand of charity, and sent liberal contributions to their relief. At the same time the committee of correspondence framed an agreement, called a solem league and covenant, by which they determined to suspend all intercourse with Great Britain, until their chartered rights should be restored. *In like manner,* agreements were formed in all parts of *America, neither* to import nor to consume British goods.

Of the Proceedings of General Gage. Soon after General Gage arrived, he was addreſſed by certain gentlemen of the council, but the addreſs containing ſevere reflections on his predeceſſor, he would not receive it. Obſerving the temper of the people, he began to think of meaſures of defenſe; and directed Boſton neck to be fortified. He alſo ſeized on the powder lodged in the public ſtore at Charleſtown. He iſſued a proclamation, to oppoſe the ſolemn league and covenant, pronouncing it an unlawful and traiterous combination. But all this ſerved only to inflame and irritate the public mind, and bring his authority into contempt.

Of the origin of Provincial Congreſſes. General Gage had ſummoned the aſſembly of Maſſachuſetts to convene at Salem; but on further reflection, had countermanded the ſummons. The counter-order was deemed illegal, and the members convened. The governor not meeting them, they organized themſelves into a provincial congreſs, which formed a plan of defenſe—reſolved to enroll a body of men, to be prepared for marching at a minute's notice, and therefore called *minute-men*—they appointed general officers—a committee of ſafety, to act as a kind of executive council—and took meaſures to collect ſupplies and military ſtores, at Worceſter and Concord. After an adjournment, for a ſhort time, they again met, determined on raiſing twelve thouſand men—ſent agents to the neighboring colonies, to requeſt their co-operations, and committees of the New-England colonies met and agreed on a plan of operations. At the ſame time, meaſures were taken to combine all the colonies into a firm union, and for this purpoſe, it was agreed that delegates from the ſeveral colonies ſhould meet in a general congreſs.

Of the General Congreſs. On the fifth of September, 1774, delegates from twelve colonies convened in Philadelphia, to deliberate on the moſt important queſtions that ever engaged the anxious ſolicitude of men. The *delegates were* appointed by the colonial legiſlatures; or *where none exiſted*, the appointments were made by ſelect

meetings and associations of citizens. They were men of the most distinguished character and talents, and enjoyed the public confidence. Before the meeting of the general congress, a convention of deputies from the towns in Suffolk county, in Massachusetts, had declared that no obedience was due to the late acts of the British parliament, but that those acts ought to be rejected as the attempts of a wicked administration to enslave America. This declaration was approved by the general congress, which resolved, that if attempts should be made to carry into effect the obnoxious acts of parliament, all America ought to unite with Massachusetts in their opposition.

Of the Proceedings of the first Congress. The great council of America, solicitous to preserve peace with the parent state, but determined to be free, adopted measures which presented to the British ministry the olive branch with one hand and the sword with the other; submitting it to their choice to withdraw their unconstitutional claims, or to meet the most determined resistance. They addressed General Gage, stating the grievances of Massachusetts, and their resolution to support that province in her opposition; intreating him to forbear hostilities, and not preclude the hope of a reconciliation. They published a declaration of the rights of the colonies, one of which was an exemption from taxes imposed upon them by a legislature in which they were not represented. They however consented to submit to all the general regulations of commerce, intended for the benefit of the whole British empire. They declared several acts of parliament to be infringements of the rights of the colonies; and a repeal of them necessary to a reconciliation. They entered into an agreement to discontinue the importation of British goods; they sent a petition to the king, and addresses to the British nation, to the Canadians, and to the colonies.

Of the consequent Proceedings of Parliament. When the proceedings of the American congress were laid before *parliament, lord* Catham introduced some conciliatory *propositions, but* they were rejected by a large ministerial

majority; and a joint address of both houses to the king, declared that a rebellion actually existed in the province of Massachusetts. The houses therefore besought his Majesty to take the most effectual measures to enforce due obedience to the laws and authority of the supreme legislature; and assured him that they were determined to support him in maintaining the just rights of the crown. From this moment, an appeal to arms became unavoidable, and both parties prepared for the conflict.

Of the Condition of the Parties at the beginning of the War. When the Americans determined to oppose their military strength to that of Great Britain, the disparity was such as might well appal the bravest heart. Great Britain possessed immense wealth and resources, her navy and merchantmen covered the ocean, her armies were considerable for numbers and discipline, her military and naval officers were of renowned skill and experience—great was her power, and still greater the pride of her sovereignty. The colonies, on the other hand, were destitute of all these advantages—they had no general government vested with powers to control the contending interests of thirteen distinct jurisdictions—the colonial governments were mostly dissolved—No skilful officers, no disciplined troops, no muskets proper for an army, no cannon nor ammunition, no camp equipage, no armed ships—nothing but consciousness of upright views, persuasion of the justice of their cause, dauntless courage, and confidence in the God of hosts, encouraged the Americans to hazard the unequal contest.

Of the Measures of Parliament, preparatory to Hostilities. In the winter and spring of 1775, the ministry headed by Lord North, procured an act of parliament to prohibit the New-England colonies from carrying on the fisheries, and from trading with the British possessions in Europe and the West-Indies. These restraints were, by a subsequent bill, extended to the other colonies. These acts were accompanied with bills for an augmentation of the *sea and land forces.* The army in Boston was increased *to ten thousand men,* which number was deemed sufficient

to reduce the rebellious colonies to submission. At the same time lord North introduced a motion for adopting what he called a conciliatory plan, but which in fact held out a lure to tempt the colonies to divide from each other, by exempting from parliamentary duties and taxation, such of them as would contribute to the common defense, by raising their proportion of money in their own way.

Of the Colonial Preparations for War. A British proclamation forbidding the exportation of arms and ammunition to the colonies, was no sooner received, than the most vigorous efforts were made in America to procure supplies. A high bounty on the materials and manufacture of powder, caused mills for making it to spring up in all parts of the country, as by enchantment. Ships and money were dispatched secretly to Europe to purchase and import arms and ammunition. In some places, the cannon belonging to the crown, were seized. The militia was put under discipline; associations and committees were every where formed to carry into effect the recommendations of congress; and in the popular enthusiasm, their resolves and advisory proposals had the effect of laws.

Of the Skirmish at Lexington. An attempt of a party of British troops to take some cannon which were lodged at Salem, threatened to open the awful scene of hostilities, but the persuasion of a worthy clergyman induced the provincial troops to withdraw their opposition, at the draw-bridge in the town; the British troops marched over, and not finding the cannon which had been previously removed, they marched back unmolested. But in April, a body of troops was ordered to march to Concord to destroy the military stores, which the Americans had collected at that place. The march, though in the night, was discovered, and early in the morning of the 19th of the month, about seventy of the Lexington militia assembled on the green. Major Pitcairn, who commanded the British troops, rode up to the militia, and addressing them by the name of *rebels*, ordered them to disperse. Not being obeyed, he *discharged his pistol*, and ordered the troops to fire.—*Eight men were killed*, and some others wounded. Thus

began the sanguinary contest which dismembered the British empire, and ended in the establishment of the independence of the colonies.

Of the return of the Troops to Boston. Having dispersed the militia at Lexington, the British troops proceeded to Concord, destroyed some flour and other stores, and returned to Boston. But the exasperated patriots in the vicinity collected, and with such arms as they had, annoyed the troops on their march, by firing from behind fences and walls; and it is doubtful whether the detachment would not have been all killed or taken, had not a reinforcement arrived and joined that body at Lexington on its retreat. On the part of the Americans, fifty men were killed, and a number wounded. Of the British forces sixty-five were killed, and one hundred and eighty-six wounded.

Of the Measures taken by the Colonies after the beginning of Hostilities. The provincial congress of Massachusetts, which was in session, at the time of the affair at Lexington, published a manifesto, addressed to the people of Great Britain, exculpating the Americans, complaining of the ravages of the British troops, declaring their loyalty to the crown, but protesting that they would not submit to the tyranny of the ministry. They declared General Gage to be disqualified for governor of the province, and that he ought to be treated as an enemy. They also passed votes for supplying the army with pay and clothing. The general congress met in May, and resolved to raise an army, and issue bills of credit to defray the expenses of the war. They now took the appellation of the UNITED COLONIES, and recommended a day of humiliation to implore the blessings of heaven on their sovereign, the king of Great Britain, and the interposition of divine aid to remove their grievances, and restore harmony between the parent state and the colonies, on constitutional terms.

Of the Entrenchment on Breed's Hill. After the skirmish on the 19th of April, General Gage issued a proclamation declaring the Americans in rebellion, and denouncing against them the severest vengeance; offering how-

ever to pardon all who should return to their allegiance, except some of the principal fomenters of opposition; as if he expected the Americans would abandon their leaders to the gallows. In the mean time, a considerable army was collected in the towns near Boston, and it was determined to annoy, and if possible, dislodge the British forces in Boston. For this purpose, a detachment was ordered on the night of the 16th of June, 1775, to throw up a breast work on Bunker's hill, near Charlestown. By some mistake, the troops entrenched on Breed's hill, nearer to Boston, and so silent and active were they, that by the return of light, they had nearly completed a strong redout, without being discovered by the enemy.

Of the Battle on Breed's Hill. No sooner had the dawn of the morning enabled the enemy to discover the advance of the Americans, than a severe cannonade from the ships in the river, announced the determination of the British commander, to oppose the progress of the works. But this not interrupting the Americans, a body of about three thousand men under General Howe, landed under protection of the shipping, and advanced to attack the works. The Americans permitted the enemy to approach within ten or twelve rods, and then discharged such a shower of musket shot as to throw the troops into disorder, and oblige them to fall back. Being rallied and advancing a second time, a second fire did such execution, as to compel the British troops to retreat. Terrible was the carnage, and so disheartened were the enemy, that the officers found it difficult to rally the troops. At length they were brought to charge the entrenchments with fixed bayonets, and the Americans, who had no bayonets, were forced to abandon the works.

Of the burning of Charlestown, and event of the action. When the British troops first landed, orders had been given to set fire to Charlestown, with a view to cover their approach; and almost the whole town, consisting of four hundred houses, was laid in ashes. This barbarous deed *proved of no use* to the enemy, but served to exasperate *the Americans.* After a heroic defence of the hill, the

American troops destitute of bayonets and of ammunition, and overpowered by numbers, retreated over Charlestown Neck, exposed to a raking fire from the Glasgow ship of war, and two floating batteries, from which however they suffered no great annoyance. Severe was the loss of British officers and soldiers in this action, amounting to more than a thousand men. The loss on the part of the Americans was less considerable; not amounting to a hundred killed, and three hundred wounded and missing. Among the killed however was general Warren, a brave officer and firm patriot.

Of the Surprize of Ticonderoga, and Crown-Point. The importance of securing the passes into Canada had occurred to some persons soon after the action at Lexington. To effect this, different parties of men were dispatched to gain possession of the principal forts on the lakes. So secret was the expedition under colonel Allen and colonel Arnold, that they surprized and took the commander of Ticonderoga in his bed. Colonel Warner, with a company took Crownpoint, and in these two forts, the Americans found cannon and military stores, which were greatly wanted. In the mean time, the British ministy employed means to inlist a body of Canadians into their service, and sent twenty thousand stands of arms, to governor Carleton at Quebec, for the use of the troops. But the inhabitants declined taking any part in the contest. An inhuman attempt of the ministry to engage the savages to fall on the frontiers, and annoy the colonies, proved equally unsuccessful.

Of the Proceedings of the Congress in 1775. In May 1775, the congress met at Philadelphia, agreeable to adjournment, and delegates from Georgia completed the representation of the colonies. One of their acts was a manifesto, justifying the necessity of taking arms in defense of the colonial rights, which was written in a masterly stile, and calculated to make a deep impression on the minds of their constituents. They sent another petition to the king, but it was treated with contempt. They directed an emission of bills of credit, not to exceed two millio

of dollars, and the faith of the union was pledged for their redemption. They established a post-office, under the direction of doctor Franklin. They directed twelve companies of riflemen to be inlisted,—instituted a general hospital—and appointed general officers.

Of the Appointment of a Cammander in Chief. It was a point of immense importance, to select, for the supreme command of the American army, a person of military talents adequate to the task, and of qualities adapted to conciliate the affections and confidence of men of different habits and education, and not free from strong local prejudices. Fortunately such a character was found and selected. GEORGE WASHINGTON, a delegate from Virginia, was appointed commander in chief of the American army, on the 15th of June 1775. This gentleman had been employed as an officer in the war with France, and had displayed eminent bravery and talents. To his experience in military affairs, he united sound judgement, extensive knowledge of men, perfect probity, pure morals, a grave deportment, indefatigable industry, easy manners, strict politeness, a commanding person, cool bravery, unshaken fortitude, and a prudence that baffled and confounded his enemies.

Of the taking of St. Johns. In pursuance of the plan of guarding the frontiers by taking Canada, or crippling the British power in that province, generals Schuyler and Montgomery were sent with a body of troops to attack the forts on the borders of Canada. But general Schuyler returning to hold a treaty with the Indians, the command was left with general Montgomery. A small fort at Chamblee was first taken, where a supply of powder was obtained, and siege was laid to St. Johns. Some attempts were made by governor Carleton to relieve the garrison; but in vain; and the garrison, amounting to seven hundred men, surrendered on the third of November, 1775. This was succeeded by the surrender of Montreal. *The only misfortune that attended these enterprizes, was the loss of* colonel Allen, who, engaging in a rash

attempt on Montreal, with a small party, was made prisoner, and sent in irons to England.

Of the Attack on Quebec, and Defeat of the Americans. Colonel Arnold had been sent with eleven hundred men to penetrate to Quebec by the river Kennebec, and the wilderness. After a most difficult march, in which fatigue and famine reduced his men to about four hundred, the remainder being obliged to return, he joined general Montgomery before Quebec, in November. Preparations were made to besiege the city, and some batteries opened, but the metal was not heavy enough to make an impression. General Montgomery therefore determined upon an escalade. The army, small in number, and exposed to most inclement weather, made the attack on the last day of the year 1775, in four divisions; two of which attacks were feints to deceive the garrison. General Montgomery entered the first barrier, but in attempting the second, was killed with most of his attending officers. The division commanded by colonel Arnold took a two gun battery, but the commander was wounded and compelled to leave the field. His men fought like heroes for three hours, but being surrounded, and seeing no hope of relief, they surrendered prisoners of war.

Of the burning of Norfolk. At the commencement of the troubles in America, violent altercations between lord Dunmore, governor of Virginia, and the assembly, had induced the governor to dissolve the legislature, and to refuse calling another. A convention was therefore assembled in March, 1775, consisting of two delegates from a county, who exercised the powers of government. On which lord Dunmore seized and conveyed on board of a ship, the powder in the magazine at Williamsburg. The people assembled in arms and demanded the powder, or its value, which the governor promised, and an apparent reconciliation took place. But the governor alarmed by popular meetings, sent his family on board of a ship of war, and issued a proclamation, charging the magistrates of Virginia with treason and rebellion. In June the governor summoned the assembly, and attempted

perſuade them to accept of lord North's conciliatory propoſitions; but finding them inflexible, he withdrew on board of the ſhip. Many irritations on the part of the country people, and the governor's adherents, at length produced hoſtilities, and by order of lord Dunmore, the flouriſhing town of Norfolk was laid in aſhes, on the firſt of January 1776.

Of the Diſſolution of the Colonial Governments. During the year 1775, the old governments of the colonies were all diſſolved. The royal governors, and all the crown officers, adhering to the Britiſh meaſures, became odious to the people; and when the popular ferment became violent, they were obliged to leave the country, or ſuſpend their functions. From that time, temporary conventions were held for the purpoſe of adminiſtering the laws and making regulations to meet the public occaſions. Many adherents to Great Britain, however, remained in the country—ſome of them, men of principle, were quiet citizens; others took part with the Britiſh troops, and by ſecret machinations or open hoſtility, aided and directed their operations. In ſome of the colonies, the Britiſh adherents were numerous and powerful; and contributed to weaken the oppoſition to the Britiſh arms.

Of the Military Operations in and near Boſton. General Waſhington, ſoon after his appointment, repaired to the army, accompanied with general Lee, and eſtabliſhed his quarters at Cambridge. On his journey, and at camp, he was received and welcomed with the moſt profound reſpect; and his preſence inſpired a degree of confidence which was an auſpicious preſage of his future influence. The army inveſting Boſton, amounted to about fifteen thouſand men; but was deſtitute of good arms, ammunition, clothing and experienced officers. The firſt, and a moſt difficult taſk, was, to organize and diſcipline the troops. All the powder in the army amounted only to nine rounds to a ſoldier; and to deceive the country with hopes and the Britiſh general with fears, caſks of ſand, were tranſported to the camp, under the name of powder. A ſmall ſupply from New-Jerſey, and the cargo of

a brig, the first prize taken by captain Manly, afforded a temporary and almost miraculous relief.

Of the Destruction of Falmouth. The inhabitants of Falmouth, a thriving town in Maine, in compliance with the resolves of the provincial congress, to prevent the royalists from removing their effects, obstructed the loading of a mast-ship, which drew upon them the vengeance of the British admiral. An order was given to burn the towne which, after a short notice to the inhabitants, to remove their effects, was barbarously executed; and most of the town was levelled with the dust, on the 18th of Octobee 1775. Such indignities and inhuman modes of warfar added fuel to the popular flame of opposition, and rendered it inextinguishable. In November following, the government of Massachusetts authorized letters of mark and reprisal, and instituted courts of admiralty for the trial and condemnation of prizes. Immediately the sea swarmed with American privateers, which captured vast numbers of valuable British ships, and supplied the Americans with all kinds of goods and military stores.

Of the Evacuation of Boston. The want of powder and the necessity of re-inlisting the troops, whose time of service had expired, rendered the army at Cambridge inactive, during the summer and autumn of 1775. It was however the intention of general Washington to avail himself of a bridge of ice over Charles river in the following winter, to march his troops into Boston, and dislodge the enemy. But a council of war advised not to make the attempt. The mode of attack was therefore varied. For the purpose of diverting the attention of the enemy a severe cannonade upon the town, was commenced, on the 2d of March; and on the night of the 4th, a battery was erected on a hill at Dorchester Point, which was near enough to annoy the British troops in Boston. The British commander prepared to attack the works, but a storm prevented, until the works were deemed so strong as to render it inexpedient. The only alternative then was, to quit the town, which was done with great alacrity; and on the 17th March 1776, general Washington marche

into Boston, to the unspeakable joy of its oppressed inhabitants.

Of the Proceedings of Parliament in the Spring of 1776. The news of the affair at Breed's hill, determined the ministry to employ a powerful force to reduce the colonies in 1776. For this purpose, they obtained an act of parliament, to justify them in taking into pay and introducing into the British dominions, sixteen thousand German troops, which, with the British regiments, constituted a force destined for America, of about fifty thousand men. At the same session, an act passed to prohibit all trade and intercourse between Great-Britain and the colonies. This law was violently opposed by the English merchants, but without effect. One clause of the act authorized the seizure and condemnation of all American property, on the high seas, and what was, beyond example inhuman, the bill authorised British subjects to compel men, taken on board of American vessels, to fight against their own countrymen.

Of the Steps preparatory to Independence. In the winter of 1775–6, few men in America had ever thought of a final separation of the colonies from the dominion of Great Britain. The great body of the people would have been startled at the proposition. Certain leading men probably had long foreseen and contemplated the event: but some previous steps were necessary to prepare the public mind for a measure involving in its consequences, the fate of millions. At this time, Thomas Paine, an Englishman of low birth, who possessed a popular talent at writing, and no small share of sophistry, and who before he debased himself by infidelity and licentious principles was much respected, ushered into the world a number of papers, signed COMMON SENSE, to prove the necessity and expedience of a declaration of independence. He was doubtless impelled to this and supported by eminent characters. The continent was electrified by his writings—the minds of people were prepared for the great event.

Of the Declaration of Independence. The news of the acts of Parliament, by which war was declared against

the colonies, and the inhabitants put out of the protection of the British government, afforded a favorable opportunity to take the decisive step of severing the bands of connection between the parent state and the colonies. The motion for this purpose was made in congress by Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, and after full discussion, the question was carried by a great majority. On the memorable 4th of July 1776, the congress, after enumerating the causes which impelled the colonies to the measure, made and published a manifesto, or solemn declaration, by which they asserted that "These United Colonies are and of right ought to be FREE and INDEPENDENT STATES," appealing the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions and pledging to each other, for the support of independence, their lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor.

Of the Attack of Sullivan's Island. Early in 1776, a squadron of British ships, under Admiral Parker, with a body of land forces on board, appeared before Charleston, in South Carolina, with a view to take possession and make an impression on the southern states. An attempt had been made in winter, by a party of British troops and royalists, to penetrate into North Carolina, but it was repelled with bravery by the militia. In June the British ships were brought to bear upon Sullivan's island, which commands the passage to Charleston, and the attack commenced. But the fire was returned with great effect from the fort, which was commanded by colonel Moultrie. The ships were shattered and obliged to abandon the attack, with a heavy loss of men. The squadron soon departed for New-York.

Of the Retreat from Canada. After the defeat at Quebec, the Americans continued the siege, through the winter; but the small pox broke out among them, and weakened their exertions. Early in spring, general Carleton received large reinforcements, and the Americans were obliged to retreat. General Thompson attacked a body of troops at the Three Rivers, but was defeated and taken prisoner. After which, the troops demolished the forts at Chambl

and St. Johns, and proceeded to Crownpoint. The Britiſh forces in Canada amounted to thirteen thouſand men, but not having boats or ſhipping, they were unable to croſs the lake, and their operations were ſuſpended till autumn. During the ſummer, the Americans were reinforced, to the number of fourteen thouſand men, who were employed in ſtrengthening the works at Ticonderoga, and raiſing fortifications on a hill on the oppoſite ſide of the Lake, which they called Mount-Independence. But in autumn, one half the army was diſabled by a violent ague and fever, and a malignant dyſentery. In October, the armed veſſels of the parties came to action, and the Americans were defeated, but it being late, the Britiſh troops retired into Canada for the winter.

Of the Operations at New-York. As ſoon as Boſton was evacuated, general Lee had been ſent to New-York to prepare to repel the Britiſh forces, which general Waſhington ſuppoſed, would be directed to occupy that important and central poſition. The main army followed, and took up their quarters on York Iſland. In June the Britiſh fleet arrived at the Hook, a point of land at the entrance of the bay or harbor, having on board thirty-five thouſand troops, a body of cavalry, and military apparatus of every kind. General Waſhington could oppoſe to this force not more than ſeventeen thouſand men, moſt of them without experience or diſcipline, and weakened by a malignant dyſentery. In this ſituation, a line of fortifications was erected on Long-Iſland, and ſuch other preparations made to reſiſt the enemy, as exigences would permit. Before the commencement of hoſtilities, lord Howe, the Britiſh admiral, ſent a letter to general Waſhington, to offer terms of accommodation; but the letter being addreſſed to George Waſhington, Eſq. the commander, with becoming dignity, declined receiving it or any writing, unleſs directed to him in his true character.

Of the Adjutant General's Interview and the Action on Long-Iſland. General Howe, the commander of the land forces, *notwithſtanding* the fate of his brother's letter, ſent *his adjutant general* Patterſon, with a letter directed to

George Washington, &c. &c. &c. This indignity was also repelled. After some conversation, in which general Washington observed, that the proposed conditions of reconciliation amounted to little more than an offer of pardon, and as the Americans had committed no offense they wanted no pardon, the adjutant general departed, and both parties prepared for action. On the 22d of August, the British troops landed on the south-west side of Long-Island, near Utrecht, and a party gained the rear of the American forces. On the 27th of the month, the attack commenced; but the Americans being surrounded, and exposed to the fire of the Hessians in front, and of the British regulars in rear, were totally defeated. Some regiments forced their way through the enemy, with great loss; but a large part fell in action or became prisoners. The Americans stated their loss at twelve hundred; the British stated it at three thousand. General Sullivan and lord Sterling fell into the hands of the enemy, whose loss was not more than three or four hundred.

Of the Retreat from Long-Island. After this severe defeat, general Washington, with the advice of a council of war, ordered a retreat from Long-Island. On the night of the 29th, this was effected with a success that was deemed a merciful interposition of heaven. Within a single night, an army of nine thousand men, with their artillery, tents and baggage, was transported to New-York over a difficult ferry of a mile in bredth, while the British army was encamped within six hundred yards, and did not discover the retreat, till too late to annoy the Americans. Soon after this event, captain Nathan Hale of Connecticut, belonging to colonel Knowlton's regiment, was employed as a spy to gain information of the enemy's situation and designs. He had entered and examined their camp, but on his return, was taken, and the evidence of his employment being clear, he was executed.—Thus a brave officer, and worthy citizen fell a victim to his ardent patriotism, lamenting that he had but one life to lose for his country.

Of the consequences of the Defeat on Long-Island. Lord Howe, under an impression that the defeat on Long-Islan

would induce congress to comply with his terms, dismissed general Sullivan on his parole, with a message to congress, requesting a conference with some of their members. Accordingly three gentlemen were appointed, who repaired to Staten Island. But as the committee declined treating, in any other character, than that of the representatives of independent states, and lord Howe could not receive them in that capacity, the interview closed with mere compliments. The enemy then passed up the east river, and landed a party at Turtle Bay, killed colonel Knowlton and dispersed his troops. A larger party proceeded and landed at Frogs Neck; and a considerable action took place at White Plains. In danger of being surrounded, general Washington was compelled to abandon York Island; leaving a garrison in fort Washington; but this was assaulted and taken soon after, with the loss of more than two thousand prisoners. Fort Lee on the west side of the Hudson was abandoned, and the enemy remained masters of York Island, Long Island and Staten Island. Soon after general Howe took possession of New-York, the city was set on fire, by what means is not known, and that part of it west of Broadway, was reduced to ashes.

Of the Retreat of General Washington, and his victory at Trenton. The American army being greatly reduced by the loss of men taken prisoners, and by the departure of men whose inlistments had expired, general Washington was obliged to retreat towards Philadelphia; general Howe, exulting in his successes, pursued him, notwithstanding the weather was severely cold. To add to the disasters of the Americans, general Lee was surprized and taken prisoner at Baskenridge. In this gloomy state of affairs, many persons joined the British cause and took protections. But a small band of heroes checked the tide of British success. A division of Hessians had advanced to Trenton, where they reposed in security. General Washington was on the opposite side of the Delaware, with about *three thousand* men, many of whom were without shoes *or convenient clothing*; and the river was covered with

floating ice. But the general knew the importance of striking some successful blow, to animate the expiring hopes of the country; and on the night of December 25th, crossed the river, and fell on the enemy by surprize, and took the whole body consisting of about nine hundred men. A few were killed, among whom was colonel Rahl the commander.

Of the Victory at Princeton. On the 2d of January 1777, lord Cornwallis appeared near Trenton, with a strong body of troops. Skirmishing took place, and impeded the march of the British army, until the Americans had secured their artillery and baggage; when they retired to the southward of the creek, and repulsed the enemy in their attempt to pass the bridge. As general Washington's force was not sufficient to meet the enemy, and his situation was critical, he determined, with the advice of a council of war, to attempt a stratagem. He gave orders for the troops to light fires in their camp, [which were intended to deceive the enemy,] and be prepared to march. Accordingly at twelve o'clock at night the troops left the ground, and by a circuitous march, eluded the vigilance of the enemy, and early in the morning appeared at Princeton. A smart action ensued, but the British troops gave way. A party took refuge in the college, a building with strong stone walls, but were forced to surrender. The enemy lost in killed, wounded and prisoners, about five hundred men. The Americans lost but few men; but among them was a most valuable officer, general Mercer.

Of the close of the Campaign of 1776. The bold and decisive measures of the American general, surprized and confounded his enemies. The British were cantoned for the winter at Brunswick and Amboy, where they were watched by the American army and the active militia of New-Jersey. The troops in the American service however were few in number, not more than fifteen hundred, who kept in check, a formidable British army, during the winter. General Washington, whose powers had before been limited, was invested, in this critical juncture, wi

ſupreme and unlimited command, which he ex[ercised] ps, diſmiſſe
public ſafety. Congreſs alſo made great exer[tions] ge to co
the ſpirits of the people by a bold and energeti[c] r member
and they adopted meaſures for raiſing an army [for] who repai
years or during the war; offering large bounties [and] ed tre
couragements. They formed a confederation to be [ad]ſent
ed by the ſtates, as a bond of union, and recommend
to the ſeveral ſtates to form conſtitutions for their o
government, which was accordingly done in this and t
following year. They alſo ſent agents to Europe to ſo
cit the friendſhip and aid of foreign powers.

Of the Opening of the Campaign of 1777. In March 177
a detachment of Britiſh troops deſtroyed the ſtores a
forage belonging to the United States at Peekſkill.
April, general Tryon, with three thouſand men, landed
Connecticut between Fairfield and Norwalk, advanced
Danbury, burnt the continental ſtores, which were val
able and moſt of the town, and retreated to the ſhippin
On their return, generals Wooſter, Arnold and Sillima
with ſuch of the militia as could be haſtily collected, ha
raſſed them and killed a conſiderable number. T
Americans loſt a number of men, and that veteran a
deſerving officer, general Wooſter. In May, Colon
Meigs, a brave and enterprizing officer, with 170 me
paſſed over to Long Iſland, deſtroyed the ſhipping a
ſtores collected for the Britiſh at Sag-harbor, and to
ninety priſoners, without the loſs of a man. In July, col
nel Barton of Rhode Iſland, with a few volunteers, croſſ
the Narraganſet at night, ſurpriſed and took priſon
General Preſcot.

Of the Retreat of the Americans from Ticonderoga. I
June 1777, the Britiſh army, amounting to ſeven thouſan
men, beſides Indians and Canadians, commanded by ge
eral Burgoyne, croſſed the lake and laid ſiege to Ticon
deroga. In a ſhort time, the enemy gained poſſeſſion
Sugar Hill, which commanded the American lines, an
general St. Clair, with the advice of a council of wa
ordered the poſts to be abandoned. The retreat
the Americans was conducted under every poſſible di

floating ice. part of their force embarked in battoes and striking some Skeneſborough—a part marched by the way of the ſ[illegible]; but they were obliged to leave their heavy hopes of the [illegible] and on their march, loſt great part of their bag- croſſed the [illegible] and ſtores, while their rear was harraſſed by the took the [illegible]iſh troops. An action took place between colonel A [illegible] Warner, with a body of Americans and general Frazer, in which the Americans were defeated, after a brave reſiſtance with the loſs of a valuable officer, colonel Francis.

Of the Battle at Bennington. The Americans had collected a quantity of ſtores at Bennington; to deſtroy which as well as to animate the royaliſts and intimidate the patriots, general Burgoyne detached colonel Baum, with five hundred men and one hundred Indians. Colonel Breyman was ſent to reinforce him, but did not arrive in time. On the 16th of Auguſt, general Stark, with about eight hundred brave militia men, attacked colonel Baum, in his entrenched camp about ſix miles from Bennington, and killed or took priſoners nearly the whole detachment. The next day colonel Breyman was attacked and defeated. In theſe actions, the Americans took about ſeven hundred priſoners, and theſe ſucceſſes ſerved to revive the ſpirits of the people. This ſucceſs however was in part counterbalanced by the advantages gained on the Mohawk by colonel St. Leger; but this officer, attacking fort Stanwix was repelled, and obliged to abandon the attempt.

Of the Defeat of General Burgoyne. General Burgoyne, after collecting his forces and ſtores, croſſed the Hudſon with a view to penetrate to Albany. But the American army being reinforced daily, held him in check at Saratoga. General Gates now took the command, and was aided by the generals Lincoln and Arnold. On the 19th of September, the Americans attacked the Britiſh army, and with ſuch bravery, that the enemy could boaſt of no advantage, and night put an end to the action. The loſs of the enemy was about five hundred. General *Burgoyne was* confined in a narrow paſs—having the

Hudson on one side and impassable woods on the other. Perceiving that a body of Americans was in his rear—his baggage to be burnt, and he could not retreat—addressed his army of thirteen thousand men opposed him in three On the 7th of October, the armies came to a second action, in which the British lost general Frazer, with a great number of officers and men, and were driven within their lines. On the part of the Americans the loss was not great, but generals Lincoln and Arnold were wounded.

Of the Surrender of the British Army. It was the plan of the British generals, to push a body of troops from New-York, to join general Burgoyne at Albany, and by establishing a line of British posts on the Hudson, to intercept the intercourse between the New England and southern states. While general Burgoyne was attempting to advance towards Albany, general Clinton with a force of three thousand men took possession of fort Montgomery, after severe loss. General Vaughan, with a body of troops, on board of armed ships sailed up the Hudson, as far as Livingston's manor, where he landed a party, burnt a large house belonging to one of the family; then sent a party to the opposite shore and laid in ashes the town of Kingston. But general Burgoyne despairing of the junction between his army and the division from New-York, surrounded by a superior army, and unable to retreat, consented to capitulate, and on the 17th of October, surrendered to the American general. The detachment under general Vaughan returned to New-York and the plan of the British commanders was totally frustrated.

Of the Operations of the Main Armies. General Washington's force had been augmented, during the winter and spring, so as to render it difficult or impossible for general Howe to pursue his plan of penetrating to Philadelphia. The British general therefore altered his plan, and embarking on board of his ships, entered the Chesapeek, and landed at the head of Elk. On the 11th of September, an action was fought at Brandywine Creek, in which the *American forces,* after a brave resistance, were obliged to *yield to superior* numbers and discipline, with the loss of

vantage—parve hundred men. The British loss was estimated at Skeit half that number. General Washington retreated to Castletown and encamped about eighteen miles from Philadelphia; while general Howe took possession of that city.

Of the Battle at Germantown. After having taken possession of Philadelphia it became necessary for general Howe to take the forts in the Delaware, to open the communication with the Atlantic. The Americans had constructed a fort on Mud Island, and a redoubt on the opposite Jersy shore; and had obstructed the channel of the river. In attempting to take these forts, count Donop, and three or four hundred men were killed, but the forts were finally taken. While this detachment was absent, general Washington attacked the British army, and at first obtained success. But a fog, in the morning occasioned many mistakes, and after a severe battle, the Americans retreated, but without the loss of their cannon. Their loss was about one thousand in killed and wounded, among the slain was general Nash and his aid, major Witherspoon. The British lost upwards of five hundred men, with general Agnew and colonel Bird. After these operations, the armies went into winter quarters.——The Congress retired to Yorktown in Virginia.

Of the Proceedings in the British Parliament. When the news of the loss of general Burgoyne's army reached England, the ministry began to speak of America with more moderation, while the opposition party were violent in their censures of administration. The war had then cost the nation about twenty thousand men, and thirty millions of money. In this state of affairs, the ministry had recourse to private subscriptions to raise additional troops. In February 1778, lord North laid before the house of commons two bills, for conciliating the colonies, one to declare the intentions of parliament concerning the right of taxing the colonies, the other for enabling the king to appoint commissioners, with full powers, to treat with the American congress, general Washington, or the *assemblies* of the colonies, respecting an accommodation of *differences*. These bills, after debate, were carried

and commissioners appointed. One event w[illegible] the other these propositions, was, the alliance between [illegible]its he[illegible] America, of which the ministry had obtained so[illegible] while ligence.

Of the Treaties with France. In 1776, congress had Silas Deane an agent to France, to solicit the friendshi that rival of Great-Britain, and to procure arms and m tary stores. But the French court would give no o countenance to the agent, although it was evident t they secretly wished success to the Americans, bec the dismemberment of the British empire, would gre weaken a powerful rival. Mr. Deane however, obtai some ammunition, clothing, and a parcel of old mus of little use. The French court would listen to no p positions of alliance, until they had news of the surren of Burgoyne. That event decided the negociation, on the 6th of February 1778, a treaty of alliance an treaty of amity and commerce were signed at Paris, the French ministry, and the American commission doctor Franklin, Mr. Dean, and Mr. Lee.

Of the Transactions of the British commissioners. news of the alliance with France was received in Amer with great joy. The prospect of a powerful ally infu new life into the Americans, and new vigor into their co cils. In this state of the public mind, the British c missioners arrived in June, with terms of reconciliat which, a few years earlier, might have effected the obj But the congress had proceeded too far to recede, and conditions of reconciliation, implying a subjection to British crown, and short of an explicit acknowledgm of the independence of the United States were reject Among other means of recalling the Americans back a dependence on Great Britain, a large bribe was offe to an influential gentleman, but it was rejected with dain. This negociation occasioned many publication manifestoes, and appeals to the people, but without sensible effect on the public mind.

Of the March of the Enemy through New-Jersey. the opening of the campaign in 1778, general H

went to England, and left the command to sir Henry Clinton. In June the British army left Philadelphia, and marched towards Staten Island. In their march they were annoyed by the Americans, and on the 28th of June a division of the army under general Lee was ordered, if possible, to bring them to an engagement. The order was not obeyed—general Washington arrived, and riding up to general Lee, addressed him in terms that implied censure. General Lee answered with warmth and disrespectful language. General Washington led the troops in person, and a smart action took place, in which both parties claimed the victory, but the advantage was clearly on the side of the Americans. The loss in killed and wounded amounted to three or four hundred, on each side; but the British left the field of battle, in the night and pursued their retreat. This battle happened at Freehold, in Monmouth county during a period of extreme heat, the mercury being above ninety degrees by Farenheits scale. Many of the soldiers died on the spot by heat, fatigue, or drinking cold water. General Lee was tried by a court martial for disobedience, and his command suspended for one year.

Of the Arrival of a French Fleet. A fleet from Toulon, of twelve ships of the line and four frigates, under the command of the count d'Estaing, arrived at the entrance of the Delaware in July, but it was too late to intercept lord Howe's fleet, which had arrived at Sandyhook.—The count sailed and lay off the hook some days, but considering it as unsafe to attack the British ships, in the harbor, he departed for Rhode-Island. A plan was concerted to attack general Pigot with the British troops at Newport, by sea and land; and general Sullivan was detached, with a considerable force to assist in the design. A landing in Rhode-Island was effected by general Sullivan; but lord Howe with the English fleet appearing off Newport, count d'Estaing, left the siege and sailed to fight him. A violent tempest prevented an action, and disabled the fleets, so that the count was obliged to put into

Boston to refit. In consequence of this dis[illegible] which hastened Sullivan raised the siege of Newport. A [illegible]rance and took place on his retreat, in which two or th[illegible]some intelmen were slain.

Of various Expeditions in 1778. The British army, [illegible] not arriving at New-York from Philadelphia, remained inactive during the summer, and the Americans encamped at White Plains. But in September, general Clinton dispatched general Grey, with a body of troops to destroy the shipping at Bedford, which was a port much frequented by privateers. In this excursion, a large number of ships, with stores and a number of houses were burnt; and the sheep and cattle on the neighbouring islands carried away by the enemy. Another party landed on the Jersey shore, surprized colonel Baylor's regiment of cavalry, while asleep, and with unequalled barbarity killed almost every man. A party of Indians and refugee royalists headed by colonels Butler and Brandt, fell suddenly on the small settlement at Wyoming, treacherously decoyed the guard out of the fort, under pretence of a parley, then surrounded and destroyed the party. Great numbers were killed after they had surrendered.

Of the Taking of Savanna. In autumn general Clinton sent colonel Campbell, with a detachment, to make an impression on Georgia. He arrived at Tybee late in December, and prepared to assault the works near Savanna, which were in a decayed condition, and feebly defended. General Prevost, who commanded the British garrison at Augustine, was directed to co-operate in the expedition. The American force under general Howe, did not exceed eight hundred and twenty men. By way of a circuitous path, the British troops attacked the Americans in the rear, as well as front, and vanquished them, with the loss of about one hundred men killed, and nearly five hundred prisoners. The British took possession of Savanna. At this time an insurrection of royalists in North Carolina *was crushed* by the spirited exertions of the militia. In *this year a more* regular discipline was introduced into the *army, by baron* Steuben, a German officer.

to En*predatory Excursions of the British army in* 1779.
. In 1779, sir George Collier, and general Matthews
ed, to ached to Virginia for the porpose of distressing
nnericans. They landed at Portsmouth, and destroy-
ie shipping and valuable stores in that vicinity, with
y houses. In June a party under general Vaughan
: possession of an eminence on the west side of the
lson, called Stoney Point, and obliged the small garri-
at a redoubt, called Fayette, to surrender prisoners of
. In July, a party under general Tryon invaded
necticut, under pretext of destroying the privateers
:h invested Long-Island, and also to draw if possible,
ral Washington from his position at the highlands.
iis expedition, the British forces landed at West-Haven,
by a circuitous march entered New-Haven, after
e oppositon, where they destroyed a number of stores,
committed other outrages. The next day, they em-
ked, and proceeding westward, landed and burnt the
ns of Fairfield and Norwalk, then returned to New-
k.

f the taking of Stoney Point. The British troops hav-
ortified Stoney Point, and garrisoned it with six hun-
men, general Wayne was detached, with a body of
ps, to take it. Having performed a difficult march,
ommenced the attack in the depth of night, at two
rent points, with unloaded muskets, depending on the
net alone for success. General Wayne was wounded,
the troops under the brave colonel Meigs and other
ers, advanced amidst a tremendous fire of grape shot
musketry, removed the obstacles, and entered the
ts. The whole garrison surrendered amounting to
e than five hundred men—the loss on each side being
than a hundred men, killed and wounded. An at-
pt soon after to surprize the fortified post at Paulus
k, miscarried. A still more important expedition,
ned by Massachusetts, in the same season, against the
ish post at Penobscot, failed, with immense loss. A
of troops landed and laid siege to the fort, but a
h naval force, under sir George Collier, appearin

at the harbor, the attempt was fruſtrated. The American armed ſhips, being a frigate of thirty two guns, one of twenty, one of eighteen, ſeveral ſmaller ſhips, and twenty four tranſports, were burnt or ſunk without offering any reſiſtance to the enemy.

Of the Operations in South Carolina and Georgia. General Lincoln had been appointed to the command of the ſouthern American army, and the Britiſh forces had been reinforced. In May, general Aſh was defeated by the enemy, under general Prevoſt, at Briar Creek, with the loſs of one hundred and fifty men killed, and about the ſame number taken. Emboldened by this ſucceſs, general Prevoſt contemplated to take poſſeſſion of Charleſton; but the moſt ſtrenuous efforts of the governor of the ſtate, the militia, and the commander of the regular forces defeated the attempt, and the Britiſh troops retired to the iſlands. In September, count d'Eſtaing arrived with his fleet from the Weſt-Indies, and it was determined to attack general Prevoſt at Savanna. At firſt a regular ſiege was begun, but the count, impatient of delay, urged an aſſault. On the 9th of October, an attempt was made to ſtorm the works; both Americans and Frenchmen behaved with great gallantry, but were repulſed with the loſs of more than a thouſand men, among whom was count Polaſki, a poliſh officer in the American ſervice.

Of the Expedition of General Sullivan. To impreſs terror on the ſavages, and diſable them in future from ravaging the frontiers, general Sullivan was ſent in the ſummer of 1779, with a ſtrong force, to deſtroy their towns. He entered the country of the ſix nations, deſtroyed forty villages with all the corn and their fruit trees, and returned with little loſs. In this ſummer, the Britiſh troops evacuated Rhode-Iſland, and the French fleet, after the repulſe at Savanna, returned to the Weſt-Indies. The court of Spain acknowledged the independence of the United States, and ſent a force which took poſſeſſion of Florida, by the ſurrender of a Britiſh garriſon. The *Britiſh troops held* Savanna, and the Americans, under

general Lincoln, retired to Charleston. Thus ended the campaign of 1779.

Of the Taking of Charleston. Sir Henry Clinton, finding it more easy to make an impression on the southern States, which were less populous than the northern, and being a level country, rendered the transportation of artillery less difficult, determined to make them the seat of war. Agreeable to this resolution, he sailed from New-York, with a large force, in the severe winter of 1779–80; and after a tempestuous passage, in which he lost some of his transports, arrived at Savanna the latter part of January. From Savanna, the army proceeded to Charleston, and in April laid siege to that city. The enemy made regular approaches, and finally being prepared to storm the town, general Lincoln was compelled to capitulate. About two thousand five hundred men, besides the militia and inhabitants, became prisoners, and all the cannon and military stores. This happened on the 12th of May 1780. General Clinton left lord Cornwallis to command the troops in the southern army, and returned to New-York. Great numbers of the people in South Carolina, being left defenseless, returned to their allegiance, and the British commander represented the state as subdued.

Of the War in the Southern States. No sooner was Charleston in the hands of the enemy, than dispositions were made to secure obedience in the interior country. For this purpose, a considerable force was sent to Camden, where the British commander, lord Rawdon, collected his stores, and took up his quarters. Many severe skirmishes took place between small parties. Colonel Tarleton, an active partizan, commanding a body of British cavalry, defeated colonel Buford, and put most of his men to the sword. Colonel Sumpter, of Carolina, collected a small band of men, and bravely attacked small parties of the enemy, thus reviving the drooping spirits of his countrymen. General Gates was sent to replace general Lincoln, in the chief command, and troops were collected to oppose the progress of the British forces.

Of the Battle at Camden. Lord Cornwallis, hearing that general Gates was approaching Camden, repaired to that place to reinforce lord Rawdon. The two armies met on the 16th of *August*, and a severe action ensued. The American militia fled at the first fire, and could not be rallied; the regular American troops fought with great bravery, but were at last overcome and retreated, leaving their artillery, waggons, and two thousand stands of arms. The loss of the Americans was seven or eight hundred men, among whom was the baron de Kalbe, a Prussian, and the second officer in command. The British loss was three or four hundred men. The next day colonel Tarlton was detached to attack general Sumpter, who lay at Fishing Creek, with a considerable body of troops. Such was the celerity of Tarleton's movements, that he surprized general Sumpter, cut off his men from their arms, routed, killed and dispersed the whole party. General Gates, with the feeble remains of his army, retreated to Hillsborough, in North Carolina.

Of the Condition of the Carolinas, and the excursion to Springfield. During the war in the southern states, the inhabitants were in a condition of extreme distress. The patriots were proscribed, and their estates sequestered by the British commander. The country was overrun and exhausted of provisions; and inveterate hostilities were carried on between neighbors and former friends who had espoused different sides of the dispute. A large party of royalists, headed by major Ferguson and encamped on the confines of North Carolina, were attacked and most of them slain or taken prisoners by a band of patriotic volunteers. Lord Cornwallis, by the sickness of his troops, and the severe loss of men at Camden, was obliged to remain inactive. General Sumpter collected a body of volunteers, and continued to harrass the enemy and intercept their convoys. During these operations in Carolina, a body of five thousand troops, under a Hessian general, passed into New Jersey, burnt a number of houses at *Connecticut Farms*, and the presbyterian church. In this *excursion, the* wife of Mr. Caldwell, a respectable clergy-

man, was shot as she sat with a child in her arms, in her own house. The enemy advanced to Springfield, a considerable part of which they burnt, but met with such severe resistance from a small force under general Green, that they returned to New York.

Of the Finances of the United States. There being no constitutional government, when the war began, and no power to tax the confederated colonies, the congress adopted the expedient of defraying the expenses of the war, by means of bills of credit. One emission after another was ushered into circulation, and none of it recalled by taxes, till such a quantity was emitted that its value depreciated to one fortieth part, and ultimately to one hundredth part of its nominal value—that is, it required one hundred dollars in paper, to purchase one dollar in specie. With this paper was the army paid. The soldiers had long been discontented, thus to lose their wages, while serving their country; and in 1780, their murmurs ripened into open mutiny. But the punishment of the ringleaders and the expostulations of the officers, prevailed to bring them back to their duty.

Of the Arrival of a French Squadron. In July, 1780, arrived at Newport, a French fleet under monsieur de Ternay, consisting of seven ships of the line, with frigates, and six thousand land forces commanded by general Rochambeau. The troops were landed, and the fortifications made strong. This gave new life to the American councils and arms; the army was reinforced, and dispositions made to strike an effectual blow. But suddenly the French fleet left the harbor and returned to France, without giving the least notice to general Washington; so that all hope of naval assistance vanished. The land forces remained and co-operated in the final reduction of the British forces in America; but general Washington was extremely angry and disappointed at the conduct of the French commander.

Of Arnold's Treachery. During these affairs, a plot of immense danger was happily discovered. General Arnold, after his wounds had in a manner disabled him, was

appointed to a command in Philadelphia; where his oppreſſive and overbearing meaſures had provoked a ſevere inquiry into his conduct. A committee, appointed by congreſs to examine his accounts, had rejected many of them as unjuſt; and his ſevere invectives, on the occaſion, and the charges againſt him, had ſubjected him to a trial by court martial, by which he was ſentenced to be reprimanded. By theſe proceedings, Arnold was greatly exaſperated, and he determined on revenge. General Waſhington ſtill valued him for his bravery and his former military ſervices, and intruſted him with the chief command at the important poſt at Weſtpoint. He took that opportunity to carry on a negociation with the Britiſh commander in New-York, for the ſurrender of the poſt into the hands of the enemy.

Of the Detection of the Plot. For the purpoſe of concerting all the requiſite meaſures, major Andre, adjutant general of the Britiſh army, proceeded to Weſtpoint in diſguiſe, where he took plans of the fortreſſes, and agreed upon the time and manner of attack.—He then received a paſſport from Arnold, and ſet out on his return to New-York, under the name of Anderſon. He had paſſed all the out poſts of the American army, when riding along the road in Tarrytown, he was ſtopped by three militia men, who were on a ſcouting party. Major Andre, alarmed for his ſafety, offered his watch and a purſe of gold, for permiſſion to proceed, but the men refuſed the bribe, and ſeized him. The papers found in his boot evidenced his guilt, and he was condemned and executed. Every effort was made by the Britiſh commander in New-York to obtain his releaſe; but in vain. His life was forfeited by the laws of war. His fortitude and amiable deportment however endeared him to the officers of the American army, who regretted the neceſſity of his fate.

Of General Arnold's Eſcape. The news of the ſeizure of Andre, ſoon reached the ears of general Arnold, who leaving his family and effects, immediately fled and went *on board the* Vulture, a ſloop of war, which the Britiſh *commander had* ſtationed near the American lines, for

the purpose of carrying on the negociation. General Washington arrived in camp from Connecticut, just after Arnold had made his escape; and found the affairs of the garrison in disorder. He received a letter from Arnold requesting that his wife might be treated with respect, and suffered to join him, or return to Philadelphia, and also that his baggage might be sent to him—which requests were granted. Arnold received the reward of his treason, and the commission of brigadier-general in the British army. He then issued a paper explaining the motives of his conduct, and had the impudence to publish an address to the American army, inviting officers and soldiers to betray their country; but without the least success.

Of the Operations in Carolina in the Winter of 1780—81. In the autumn of 1780, general Green, an excellent officer, was appointed to the command of the American forces in Carolina. He was accompanied by colonel Morgan, an active officer, who commanded a body of rifle men. The first action, after this appointment, was fought at the Cowpens, where colonel Morgan was attacked by colonel Tarleton, who had the advantage of numbers. Colonel Morgan placed a body of militia in front of a wood, while his best troops were drawn up in the rear and out of sight. The first line gave way, and as Tarleton pursued them, the other line opened to let his men advance, until they were placed between two fires, when a deadly discharge from Morgan's troops threw the enemy into irrecoverable disorder. The enemy lost three hundred men killed and five hundred prisoners. The loss of the Americans was twelve men killed and sixty wounded.

Of the Battle near Guilford Court-House. After the disaster at the Cowpens, lord Cornwallis determined to intercept colonel Morgan, and retake the prisoners, but a heavy rain during the night, swelled the rivers so as to prevent his design. To enable his troops to march with more celerity, he destroyed all his heavy baggage. At length general Green joined colonel Morgan, with additional forces, and lord Cornwallis, having collected his troops, the armies met near the court-house in Guilford

The action was fought on the 15th of March 1781. The Americans amounted to between 4 and 5 thousand men, but mostly militia, or inexperienced soldiers. The British force consisted of about half the number of veterans. The battle was fought with great bravery and effect; for although lord Cornwallis remained master of the field, his losses, in a country where he could not recruit his army, had the effect of a defeat. His loss was more than five hundred men. That of the Americans could not be less.

Of the subsequent Operations. Lord Cornwallis not being able to pursue his advantages, general Green marched to Camden, where lord Rawdon was fortified, with nine hundred men. The British commander sallied out and attacked him; victory for some time hung in suspense; but the retreat of two companies, gave the British the advantage. The loss on each side was between two and three hundred men. General Green did not remain inactive—a number of posts, in different parts of the country, fell successively into his power, with supplies of military stores. General Green laid siege to Ninety Six, a strong post, but lord Rawdon, with a reinforcement, advancing to its relief, general Green attempted to take it by storm. But the attempt failed, with the loss of one hundred and fifty men.

Of the Battle at the Eutaw Springs. Many skirmishes and movements took place in the summer of 1781; but on the 19th of September, general Green, with about two thousand men, attacked colonel Stewart, at the Eutaw Springs. After a severe fire between advanced parties, the action became general, and the militia gave way.—General Green then ordered the regular troops of the Maryland and Virginia lines, to advance with trailed arms, and make a free use of the bayonet. A shower of musketry and a severe cannonade made no considerable impression on this body—they attacked the enemy and won the victory. Five hundred men were taken prisoners, and the whole loss of the British was estimated at *eleven hundred.* Colonel Washington, bravely advancing

to diſlodge a party of the enemy from a picketed garden and houſe, was wounded and taken priſoner. Colonel Stewart, the next day, abandoned the place and retreated towards Charleſton.

Of Arnold's exploits in Virginia. Early in 1781, general Arnold was diſpatched with about ſeventeen hundred men, to make a diverſion in Virginia, by calling the attention of the Virginians from lord Cornwallis. General Philips, with two thouſand troops, was ſent from New-York to reinforce him. General Waſhington detached the marquis de la Fayette, with two thouſand men, to oppoſe the enemy in Virginia; and a ſmall naval force under de Ternay, ſailed from Newport to block up the Cheſapeak and take the Britiſh troops. An inconſiderable action took place between this fleet and a diviſion of the Britiſh ſhips under admirals Arbuthnot and Graves. But the French ſhips returned, and left the Britiſh ſquadron to ſuccor the army in Virginia. The Britiſh troops were employed for a long time without much interruption, in deſtroying the warehouſes, tobacco, mills and other property on James' river and the Appomottox, and immenſe was the deſtruction of property.

Of the Junction of the Britiſh Forces in Virginia. After the ſevere action at Guilford, lord Cornwallis retreated to Wilmington in North Carolina. His troops ſuffered every poſſible diſtreſs from the want of proviſions and clothing, and the extreme heat of the climate. He therefore determined to force a march through a moſt inhoſpitable deſart, and join the troops under general Philips in Virginia. He arrived in May, and took the command of the united forces. General Philips died of a fever, before his arrival. After ſome predatory warfare, lord Cornwallis encamped at Yorktown, and Glouceſter Point on York river, which afforded deep water for ſhipping, and there he fortified his camps; the main body of the army being on the ſouth ſide of the river at Yorktown, and his whole force being about ſeven thouſand men.

Of the Events which led to the Attack on Lord Cornwallis. In the year 1780, a plan of combined operations again

the British forces in America, was preconcerted by general Washington, at Wethersfield, in conjunction with general Rochambeau, general Knox and other generals.—General Washington was induced to this, by the absolute necessity of obtaining some splendid advantage, to revive the expiring hopes and languid exertions of the American states. The point of attack was not absolutely determined; for it was not possible to foresee where the enemy would be most susceptible of impression. But the general determined to be prepared, either for an attack on New-York, if the prospect of success should be clear; or upon any other impressible point. For this purpose great exertions were made, in collecting artillery, boats, stores and provisions. At the same time, the general gave out and caused it to be understood by all ranks of officers, civil and military, that New York was to be the place of attack, with a view to induce the eastern and middle states to exert themselves in furnishing supplies. After lord Cornwallis had collected a large body of forces in Virginia, and the general determined that it would be best to attack *his* army, he wrote letters to general Green and others, stating his intention to attack New York, and contrived to have these letters intercepted by the British commander, in New-York, who was completely deceived, and prevented from sending succors to lord Cornwallis.

Of the Siege of Yorktown. After making a show of attacking New-York, general Washington suddenly quit this camp, crossed the Hudson with his army, and passing through New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, speedily arrived at the head of Elk, where a part of his forces embarked and sailed to Virginia; the rest marched by land. At this moment, general Washington heard of the arrival of the French fleet under the count de Grasse, in the Chesopeak. Admiral Graves made an attempt to relieve lord Cornwallis; and his fleet had a slight engagement with the French fleet, near the Capes of the Chesopeak; but without the intended effect. A body of French troops was landed, to co-operate with the Americans. The whole *combined force* under general Washington, amounting to

twelve or thirteen thousand men, besides the militia, closely invested the British army in Yorktown.

Of the Burning of New-London. No sooner had Sir Henry Clinton discovered that general Washington had drawn off his forces towards Virginia, than he sent general Arnold on another expedition for plunder and destruction. On the 6th of September 1781, the British forces landed near New-London in Connecticut, in two divisions; one took fort Trumbull, without difficulty, the other met with a brave resistance from colonel Ledyard and about seventy men suddenly collected from the town of Groton. The assailants lost their commanders; colonel Eyre was wounded and major Ferguson killed; but they took the fort by assault, and slaughtered the garrison after they had surrendered. Colonel Ledyard was slain with his own sword. The party then proceeded to burn the town of New-London; sixty dwelling houses, eighty four stores, and a great amount of property were devoted to the flames. A part of the shipping was sent up the river and saved—the rest was destroyed.

Of the Surrender of Lord Cornwallis and his army. The British army being blockaded by sea, the American army opened the first batteries upon them, early in October, with such effect as to silence part of their artillery. Two British redouts, which annoyed the operations, were assaulted and taken, one by colonel Hamilton, at the head of a party of American troops, who attacked with unloaded arms and carried the works with little loss—the other by a detachment of French troops, who suffered considerable loss. The second parrallel was begun on the night of the 11th; and such was the tremendous effect of the American artillery, that the British works were demolished, their guns silenced, and no hope of relief or escape remained. On the 17th of the month, lord Cornwallis proposed a cessation of hostilities, and on the 19th articles of capitulation were signed, by which the British army, military stores, and shipping fell into the hands of general Washington.

Of the Effects of the Capture of Lord Cornwallis on the Americans. As the reduction of this diviſion of the Britiſh forces in America, was conſidered as deciding the war and eſtabliſhing the independence of the United States, the news was every where received with emotions of inexpreſſible joy. Divine ſervice was performed in all the American brigades, and the commander in chief, recommended that all who were not on duty, ſhould join in the worſhip, with a ſerious deportment, and that ſenſibility of heart, due to the recollection of the ſurprizing and particular interpoſition of Providence. Congreſs reſolved to go in proceſſion to church, and make public acknowleigements of gratitude to heaven for the ſingular event. A public thankſgiving was recommended, and the day was obſerved throughout the United States. General Waſhington and the French commanders received the thanks of congreſs; and the American commander in chief liberated all perſons under arreſt, that all might partake in the general joy.

Of the Conſequences of the Surrender of Cornwallis. The reduction of ſo large a part of the Britiſh forces in the United States, convinced the Britiſh nation of the utter impracticability of conquering the country. The combined forces of France and Spain had taken Minorca from Great Britain: ſome of the iſlands in the Weſt Indies, and ſome of their poſſeſſions on the ſouth American coaſt, had ſhared the ſame fate. Admiral Rodney, in 1782, obtained a moſt important naval victory over the French fleet under the count de Graſſe, which in ſome degree, balanced the loſſes of Great Britain; but the vaſt expenſe of money and lives in the conteſt, induced the Britiſh nation to wiſh for peace. A change of miniſtry took place, which was favorable to the United States, and meaſures were taken in 1782, to open a negociation. General Carleton was appointed to the command in America, and arrived at New-York in May, with inſtructions to propoſe an accommodation. At length the miniſters of the ſeveral *powers at war ſigned* proviſional articles of peace on the *30th of November 1782*, by which the independence and

sovereignty of the United States were acknowledged. On the 3d day of September 1783, was signed a definitive treaty, which secured to the United States the objects for which they had contended, and gave them a rank among nations.

Of the Disbanding of the Army. When the American army was to be disbanded, new and serious difficulties arose concerning the payment of the arrears of their wages and rations. The want of resources to carry on the war, and the want of a supreme power to lay and collect taxes, had driven congress to the expedient of emitting vast sums in bills of credit, which depreciated almost to no value; and the interruption of commerce with a deluge of paper currency, banished for a time, all gold and silver from circulation. In this state of the public treasury, the army was ill paid and clothed, and great discontents occasioned the resignation of officers, and rendered it impracticable to recruit the army.

Of the Provision made for the Army in 1778. In January 1778, general Washington addressed congress in favor of the army; representing that although the effusion of zeal, at the beginning of the contest, had induced officers and men to enter into the service without much regard to pecuniary considerations, yet finding it to continue longer than they had at first expected, and that they were to expose their lives, health and estates to destruction, by their patriotism, without a prospect of a competent future subsistence, their ardor had abated, and a disinclination to the service prevailed—that resignation of commissions were frequent, and that reliance could not be placed on men disaffected to the service. He therefore urged congress to make provision, to secure them and their families from future want and distress. Convinced of the propriety of this measure, congress on the 15th of May, 1778, resolved to grant half pay for seven years after the war, to the commissioned officers; and to non-commissioned officers and privates, eighty dollars, at the end of the war, *in addition* to their pay and rations.

Of the Effects of this Grant, and the Extension of it. The half pay resolve quieted the apprehensions of the army, in a good degree, and the service was for a time, performed with zeal and alacrity. But the continual depreciation of the currency in which the troops received their wages, deprived them of a great part of their real dues, and neither officers nor soldiers could maintain a decent appearance, in point of dress, while the families of many were suffering at home. These circumstances, with the derangement of a great number of officers, in 1780, occasioned by the necessity of reducing the number of regiments, for want of their complement of men, gave rise to great discontents in the army, and called for a further interposition of congress. Upon the representation of these facts, by the commander in chief, congress on the 21st of October, 1780, resolved, that the officers should be entitled to half pay for life.

Of the State of the Army in 1783. Reposing confidence in the faith of the United States, the officers of the army remained quiet, until the close of the war. A mutiny among the soldiers, in two or three instances, occasioned some alarm, but produced no serious consequences. After the army returned from Yorktown, and encamped at Newburgh, on the Hudson, a cessation of hostilities gave them leisure to contemplate their sufferings, their losses by paper currency, and their future prospects. At that time, a report was circulated that congress did not intend to fulfil their engagements respecting half pay. They therefore deputed a committee of officers to wait on congress, with an address and petition, representing their hardships, and embarrassments—that in 1777, they had been paid in dollars when worth four pence only—and that their subsequent arrearages had not been liquidated. They therefore requested an adjustment, and payment or security for the balances due. And as the half pay resolves had given uneasiness, by establishing a precedent of *pensions*, they requested a sum in gross in lieu of half pay for life.

Of the Proceedings of Congress on this Memorial. In *compliance with* the wishes of the army, congress on the

25th of January, resolved that the superintendant of finance, should pay such part of the arrears due to the army, as the finances would permit—that the states should be called on to complete a settlement with their respective troops, to the first of August 1780—that the troops had an undoubted right, with all public creditors, to expect security for the payment of arrears, and that congress would make every effort in their power, to obtain from the states, substantial funds for the whole debt. The proposition for commuting half pay during life, for a specific sum, was referred to a committee to examine the value of annuities, and on their report a resolution was proposed granting five years full pay in lieu of half pay for life, but it did not pass. On the 8th of February the committee made a report of these proceedings to the army.

Of the Reception of this Report by the Army. As congress had little money and no means of raising it, except the old expedient of issuing bills, the army had little hope of any immediate relief adequate to their wants; and conscious of their fidelity and meritorious services, they could not patiently brook the delays attending the settlement of their accounts. On the 10th of March a notification was circulated, without a name, requesting a meeting of the general and field officers, with one from each company, to consider the communications from congress, and what measures it would be proper to take. With this notice was circulated an anonymous address, couched in a stile of great energy, and calculated to awaken in the army the keenest sensations of indignity for the wrongs done to the officers and soldiers. The impression on the army was correspondent to the spirit of the address, and threatened a violent commotion.

Of the Conduct of General Washington in that Crisis.—The commander in chief with that coolness which never forsook him, and with a moderation adapted to allay the irritations of the moment, issued the next day, a notice reproving with mildness, the proposal for an irregular, unauthorised meeting, and requesting the officers to meet on a different day. On which a second address from the

ſame unknown pen appeared, in which the author indirectly intimated that the deſign of his firſt addreſs was not to excite to violence, but to rouſe the army to aſſume a more bold and manly tone, in their ſolicitations for juſtice. The addreſſes were communicated to congreſs, and no doubt produced in a degree, the effect intended; for on the 22d of March, a reſolution paſſed for a grant of five years pay, in lieu of half pay for life. At the meeting of the officers in purſuance of the general's requeſt, the commander in chief addreſſed them in a maſterly manner, reprobating the anonymous addreſs, recommending peaceable meaſures, and pledging himſelf to exert his utmoſt ability to procure full juſtice to be done to the army. The officers voted him an addreſs of thanks, and reſolved that they continued to have unſhaken confidence in the juſtice of congreſs and their country. Thus was diſſipated one of the moſt menacing ſtorms that ever hung over America.

Of the Diſmiſſion of the Army. At the moment this ſtorm had ſubſided, news was received that the preliminaries of peace were ſigned, and on the 26th of May 1783, congreſs reſolved that the commander in chief be inſtructed to grant furlows to the non-commiſſioned officers and ſoldiers, who were engaged in ſervice during the war, who ſhould be diſcharged as ſoon as the definitive treaty ſhould be concluded, with a due proportion of commiſſioned officers. Upon the publication of that reſolve, the officers preſented a ſpirited addreſs to the commander in chief, expreſſing their ſufferings and wants, and their ſevere diſappointment, as well as aſtoniſhment, at being diſbanded without a ſettlement of their accounts, and a proviſion for payment of the balances. They intreated him to uſe his influence with congreſs to obtain a ſuſpenſion of their order, and that no officer or ſoldier ſhould be obliged to receive a furlow, until congreſs could be made acquainted with the wretched condition into which *they ſhould* be plunged, if compelled to retire from the *army, without* a ſettlement of their accounts, a payment *of the* balances, or any evidence of what was due to

them. The request could not be granted, but the general in his reply, stated that a partial payment was soon to be made, and that every thing practicable should be done, to bring their accounts to a final adjustment.

Of the Mutiny in Pennsylvania. As it was not possible for congress to make full payment to the army, nor to liquidate their accounts in a short time, and as it was important to reduce the current expenditures, the officers and soldiers inlisted for the war, were dismissed with three months pay, in notes given by the financier, payable in six months. This measure excited great discontents, and in Pennsylvania occasioned a mutiny. In June 1783, about eighty soldiers, belonging to a body then stationed at Lancaster, deserted their officers, and under the conduct of their sergeants, marched to Philadelphia, where they were joined by two or three hundred soldiers from the barracks in that city. On the 21st of the month, they proceeded in a body and surrounding the state-house, where congress and the executive council of Pennsylvania were sitting, placed guards at the doors—sent a message to the council complaining of the non-settlements of their accounts, and the want of pay, and behaved in a menacing and disorderly manner.

Of the Proceedings of Congress on this occasion. Congress, not chusing to deliberate when surrounded by armed men, adjourned and retired. After the mutineers had withdrawn, congress appointed a committee to wait on the executive council of Pennsylvania, requesting their efficacious aid in securing the safety of their persons, and preventing such indignities to the authority of the United States. The committee reported, that they had not received satisfactory assurances of the prompt and adequate exertions of that state, for supporting the dignity of the federal government. Congress therefore adjourned their sittings to Trenton, where they continued for some time; and to put a stop to such outrages, general Washington was requested to send a body of troops to Philadelphia. *Accordingly a detachment of fifteen hundred men was sent from head-quarters—which with other measures,*

quelled the mutiny. The accounts of the army had been put in a train for settlement, persons were appointed to adjust and ascertain the demands on the United States, whether for services or supplies; and certificates, which acquired the name of *final settlements*, were given as evidences of the balances due from the public. In these was included five years pay to the officers, in lieu of half pay for life, and eighty dollars allowance to the soldiers beyond their wages.

Of the Popular Discontents on account of the Grant to the Officers. Scarcely was the army dismissed, when attempts were made in some parts of the country, to excite uneasiness among the people, on account of the five years extra pay to the officers, called commutation. The uneasiness was first manifested and most violent in the New-England states, and especially in Connecticut, where the symptoms of it became public in July 1783. Town meetings were held and resolutions passed, expressive of the people's disapprobation of the act of congress. It was said that the half pay, and the five years pay in lieu of it, were in the nature of pensions, which are always odious among a free people—that the officers of the army had taken advantage of the necessities of the country, to extort the promise of this gratuity from Congress—that the army had not suffered more than the people—that many of the officers had raised large estates—and all of them been amply rewarded by extra grants and bounties.

Of the Progress of these discontents. The publication of the town meeting resolves served to augment and spread with rapidity the popular discontents; and in autumn the crisis became alarming. A proposal for a convention of deputies from the several towns in Connecticut, to be held at Middletown, was circulated with great success, and on the 3d day of September delegates from twenty-eight towns, assembled at that place. For want of a full representation of the state, which was ascribed to the *short notice* given, they adjourned to the thirtieth of the *same month.* On that day the convention met and about *fifty towns* were represented. This illegal body, having

agreed on an address to the legislature, adjourned to the 10th of December; when few members attending, they adjourned to the third Tuesday in March 1784. On that day a few delegates attended and originated an inflammatory address to the people, complaining of the officers of the army, and pronouncing the grant of five years extra pay, an unconstitutional act.

Of the Result of the Popular Proceedings. During the democratic effervency in Connecticut, congress were accused as usurpers and tyrants; the proposal of a general impost to supply the public treasury was reprobated as dangerous to the sovereignty of the several states: the society of the Cincinnati was represented as an aristocracy, aiming to establish orders of nobility; and a thousand bugbears were held up to view, to terrify weak and discontented minds. An attempt was made to circulate a ticket containing the names of new men for the upper-house, and the old, firm, respectable men who had stood at the helm, during the tempest of the revolution, were held up to view as objects of suspicion. But the more steady and discerning part of the people gave no heed to these democratic jealousies; they represented, in the papers, the true state of facts—that the army had suffered by the depreciation of paper bills—that they had endured hunger and cold, for want of their just dues—and that the grant of congress was essential to the very existence of an army. Such representations had the desired effect, and before the session of the legislature in May 1784, the towns had become sensible of their error, and dismissed their delegates.

Of the Discontents in Massachusetts. In the beginning of 1784, an attempt was made by some towns in Massachusetts, to collect the sense of the people in an irregular manner, as had been done in Connecticut. In February, a committee of the towns of Wrentham and Medway, with the advice of some other towns, wrote a circular letter, proposing a meeting of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk *county*, to take into consideration the commutation *act*, and the proposed general impost. On that occasion *the town of* Boston held a meeting and agreed to

letter which was ſent to the committee in anſwer to their circular letter; expreſſing the entire diſapprobation of the propoſed county meeting, as irregular and unconſtitutional. They reprobated the baleful influence of ſuch diſorderly proceedings, and manifeſted an acquieſcence in the meaſures of congreſs. The ſpirit of oppoſition however infected the people and the legiſlature of that ſtate for ſome time, until the good ſenſe of wiſe and moderate men prevailed over the intemperate zeal of the popular leaders.

Of General Waſhington's Circular Letter. In June 1783, the commander of the American army wrote a circular letter to the governors of the ſeveral ſtates, congratulating them on the glorious termination of the war, and offering to them his ſentiments on ſome important ſubjects. In this letter, he repreſents that the republic of the United States was founded in an enlightened period of the world, when the rights of men were well underſtood; when ſcience, commerce, refinement of manners, liberality of ſentiment, and above all the pure and benign light of revelation had meliorated the ſtate of mankind, and increaſed the bleſſings of ſociety—for theſe reaſons, if the citizens of the United States ſhould fail to be free and happy, the fault would be entirely their own—that the cup of bleſſings was offered to them, but it depended on themſelves whether to be reſpectable and proſperous, or contemptible and miſerable—and whether the revolution ſhould be a bleſſing or a curſe. In this addreſs, he recommended an indiſſoluble union of the ſtates under one federal head—a ſacred regard to public juſtice—the adoption of a peace eſtabliſhment, and the cultivation of pacific and friendly diſpoſitions among the people. He declared alſo his intention of retiring to private life, which he had left with regret, and for which he had never ceaſed to ſigh.

Of General Waſhington's Farewell Addreſs to the Army. The congreſs, in conſequence of the definitive treaty of peace, diſbanded the army by proclamation, dated October 18, 1783. On this occaſion, the commander in chief, on

the second of November, addressed to the army, his farewel orders, in which he recapitulated the principal events of the war, the disadvantages under which it was conducted, and the perseverance of the troops, under the severest sufferings from hunger, nakedness, toils, dangers and inclement seasons. He gave them the strongest assurances that their services would be rewarded, and recommended to them to carry into civil life the most conciliating dispositions, and the virtues of good citizens. He expressed his thankfulness to the officers and soldiers for their zeal, bravery, fortitude and patience, and, dropping the curtain of separation, he recommended them, in a most affectionate manner, to the notice of a grateful country, and the protection of heaven.

Of General Washington's Resignation. On the twenty-third day of December 1783, the commander in chief of the American army waited on congress, then sitting at Annapolis, to resign his commission. On that affecting occasion, the general addressed the president, congratulating congress on the auspicious issue of the war, and the confirmation of the sovereignty and independence of the United States. He expressed his grateful sense of the assistance and support he had received from the country, his obligations to the army, and to the gentlemen who composed his family, whom he recommended to the notice of congress. He then commended the dearest interests of his country to the holy keeping of the Supreme Disposer of events, took an affectionate farewel of the august council of America, under whose orders he had acted, delivered his commission to the president, and took leave of all public employments. The president rose, and with a heart almost too full for utterance, reciprocated the general's congratulations, and with the most ardent expressions of gratitude for his services, and affection for his person, commended his precious life to the fostering care of heaven. The tears of spectators evidenced their sensations at the sublime spectacle of the great Washington, *resigning his* command, and retiring, loaded with honors, *to the peaceful* shades of Mount Vernon.

Of the Cincinnati. During the negociations for peace, the officers of the army formed themselves into a society, to which they gave the name of *Cincinnati*, after the celebrated Roman, who was summoned from his plow, to take command of the armies of the republic, and after defeating his enemies and liberating the state from danger, returned to the cultivation of his farm. The objects of this association were declared to be, to perpetuate the memory of the revolution and the friendship of the officers,—to preserve inviolate the exalted rights and liberties of human nature—to promote and cherish union and national honor between the states—and to form a fund for the relief of officers or their families who should come to want. For this purpose, every officer deposited a month's pay, in a common stock, which was put to interest. The honor was made hereditary in the male issue of the officers, and in default of such issue, might be assigned to collateral heirs. Distinguished men, not belonging to the army, might be elected honorary members. The badge of the order was a gold medal suspended by a blue ribbon.

Of the Popular Jealousy against this Society. The association of the Cincinnati was published at a time when the people of the United States were oppressed with taxes, and irritated at the grant of extra pay to the army.—The universal jealousy of equal rights, which the leaders of the revolution had found it necessary to foster and cultivate, was alarmed at every thing that bore the semblance of distinction. At this time a writer of considerable eminence in Carolina published a pamphlet, in which he labored to prove that the society was intended by some of its artful framers, to lay the foundation of an order of nobility; that it contained in it the elements of such an order and would certainly result in the establishment of it. Whatever truth there might have been in these charges, the publication had a considerable effect, in augmenting the flames of popular discontent.

Of the Alteration of their Constitution. At a meeting of *delegates from* the several state societies, [which were *composed of* the officers of each state,] held at Philadel-

phia in May 1784, general Washington attended and was appointed president. To obviate objections against this society, and allay the popular uneasiness, it was judged expedient to amend the constitution of the society, and expunge the most objectionable articles, and especially that which rendered the honor hereditary. On this occasion, the society published an address to the state societies, in which they declared and appealed to heaven for the sincerity of their declaration, that their intentions were pure; that as their views had been misrepresented, they would give another proof that the officers were among the most faithful citizens, and therefore they had agreed to a constitution to which there could be no reasonable objection. By this constitution, the officers are formed into a general society, and the officers of each state into a state society, whose annual meetings for the choice of officers are on the anniversary of independence. By this institution, the friendship contracted in the army, is preserved, and the interest of the funds benevolently applied to the relief of indigent members or their families.

Of the Weakness of the Confederation. In 1778, a plan of confederation and perpetual union was formed by congress and proposed to the several states for acceptance. Most of the states acceded to it without great delay; but on account of some advantages, which that plan was calculated to afford to the states possessing unappropriated lands, the state of Maryland, which possessed no such land, at first declined accepting it; and did not ratify it until March 1781. In the mean time, the states were compelled by external danger, to act in concert; and the recommendations of congress were observed by the states, and usually carried into effect by laws enacted by the several legislatures. But no sooner were the states released from the pressure of dangers, than the weakness of the federal compact began to appear. The states were no longer anxious to preserve the authority of congress, whose resolutions were disregarded, or at least not enforced. *Congress had no power* to lay taxes to supply the treasury of *the United States*, the sums voted for public service were

apportioned upon each state, to be raised in the manner the legislature should prescribe. But the states soon became delinquent—the treasury was not supplied, and no provision was made for paying the interest of the public debt.

Of the Expedients to raise Money. Congress, finding the requisitions of money from the states, altogether ineffectual, recommended to the several legislatures to grant to congress a power to lay and collect an impost on imported commodities, amounting to five per cent. Most of the states readily complied, and passed an act granting the power required. But Rhode-Island, an importing state, apprehensive that such a grant would lessen the advantages of her trade, declined passing an act for the purpose, and by that means, defeated the only practicable plan of replenishing the federal treasury. New-York afterwards joined in opposition to the measure, and rendered all prospect of a revenue hopeless. In this situation, the authority of congress was reduced to a name, and the confederation to a rope of sand. The interest of the public debt could not be paid, and congress issued certificates of interest, called *indents:* but the certificates, both for principal and interest, during the extinction of public credit, depreciated to one eighth of their real value. Two hundred millions of dollars, in bills of credit, had been issued by congress, but these had sunk to no value and ceased to circulate.

Of the Paper Currencies. As the expenses of the war, and the destruction of commerce, had rendered people poor, involved them in debt, and reduced them to great distress, the legislatures of some of the states resorted to the old expedient of bills of credit. Large sums were issued—in some states the bills were loaned to the inhabitants on mortgages of real estate—in others they were circulated under the compulsion of tender laws—in most of them, the bills depreciated and occasioned numerous frauds. Other states, avoiding the evils of a paper currency, suspended the collection of debts for a limited time, or *made various* commodities a legal tender in discharge of *debts.* *In some* states the bills sunk not more than ten

per cent.—in others, to almoſt nothing; and being limited in circulation, to the bounds of ſtates, were extremely inconvenient as a medium of buſineſs.

Of the Public Creditors. No fund having been provided by congreſs for the payment of the principal or intereſt of the federal debt, the certificates loſt their value, and the creditors of the United States were left in a hopeleſs condition. Such of them as were poſſeſſed of other property, were not reduced to wretchedneſs; but many of the officers and ſoldiers, or their widows and orphan children, were deprived of the means of ſubſiſtence. In this diſtreſſed condition, many were compelled to ſell their certificates at any price that was offered; and as it was doubtful whether congreſs would ever have the ability to redeem them, few perſons would riſk to purchaſe them. In this ſtate of public credit, particular men made it their buſineſs to buy and ſell the certificates, and thus acquired the name of ſpeculators. This irregular buſineſs continued, until the debt was funded—but in the mean time, moſt of the army notes had been ſold at about a 6th or an 8th of their nominal value. Thus the brave men, who had endured hardſhips, cold and hunger, who had fought the battles of the country, and repeatedly received ſolemn aſſurances of ample recompenſe for their toils; were forced to ſell their ſecurities for a mere trifle, to ſave their families from ſtarving.

Of the Trade of the United States. During the three laſt years of the war, when continental bills had ceaſed to circulate, large quantities of gold and ſilver had been introduced into the country, by the French army, and an illicit trade to Spaniſh America. No ſooner was peace proclaimed, than a vaſt importation of Britiſh goods was begun; and was greatly encouraged by the real wants of America, and the ſuperabundance of goods in Great Britain. This trade was at firſt lucrative to both parties, but in a ſhort time occaſioned a ſcarcity of ſpecie, which had been remitted in ſhip loads to Great Britain for goods. This evil was rendered the more durable, by the reſtrictions *laid on the* trade of the United States to the Weſt *Indies; for* Great Britain, enforcing her navigation laws

ſhut her ports againſt American ſhips, or laid enormous duties on our moſt valuable exports.

Of the Effects of theſe Meaſures. The reſtrictions on our trade, and the indiſcrete importations of Britiſh goods on credit, in the courſe of two or three years, totally exhauſted the country of money, and the merchants could not poſſibly make remittances to meet their engagements. Hence proceeded numberleſs bankruptcies among the American merchants, which cauſed great failures alſo in England; multitudes were ruined in both countries, and then followed great diſtreſſes, an annihilation of private credit and mercantile confidence. To remedy theſe evils, the ſtate legiſlatures adopted the moſt pernicious meaſures. Some of them expected relief in emiſſions of bills of credit—ſome of them attempted to retaliate, and impoſed reſtraints on the Britiſh trade to this country, to induce the miniſtry to relax the rigor of her navigation laws, and enter into a commercial treaty with the United States. But at the ſame time, the neighboring ſtates opened their ports to all the world, and counteracted the operation of ſuch reſtraints. In this miſerable, disjointed condition, the ſtate ſovereignties thwarted each others ſchemes, the dignity of the union was loſt in the narrow views of petty ſtate rivalries, our national character was degraded, the United States became a jeſt and a bye word among nations, and were threatened with civil commotions, of the moſt formidable nature.

Of the Inſurrection in Maſſachuſetts. During the extinction of the authority of congreſs, Maſſachuſetts made an effort to maintain her credit, and laid a very heavy tax to ſatisfy her creditors. As the country had not recovered from the diſtreſſes of the war; as trade and manufactures had declined, and the habits of people had become luxurious and licentious, by means of a liberal credit of goods, and a diſorganized ſtate of the government, the meaſures of the legiſlature were found to favor more of a zeal for doing juſtice, than of expediency. The people oppoſed *the tax—in ſome* parts of the ſtate, county meetings *were held, and* abuſing the privilege of petitioning for a

redress of grievances, they proceeded to combine their scattered forces; the people obstructed the sitting of courts, and finally took arms in opposition to the laws of the state. Some skirmishing ensued, and several persons were killed; while in some counties, the friends of the government were robbed and plundered. The prudent and conciliating measures of governor Bowdoin and his council, seconded by an armed force under general Lincoln, in the winter of 1786, gradually subdued the spirit of opposition, and restored the authority of the laws.

Of the first Attempts to establish a more Effectual Government. Discerning men, before the conclusion of the war, were convinced that the confederation was defective and utterly insufficient to accomplish the ends of a national union. In February 1783, a merchant of Philadelphia published a pamphlet on the subject; in which he clearly proved the necessity of a new constitution which should divide congress into two houses, and give them more ample powers. The events of a few years demonstrated the opinions of that discerning writer; but at that time, the people full of state pride, and placing their confidence in the state governments, treated the author's plan, as original propositions are usually treated, with hatred, jealousy or contempt. In the June following, however general Washington, in his letter to the several governors, urged the necessity of enlarging the powers of congress. These recommendations were disregarded, until the public calamities became urgent, and a resort to arms become the theme of conversation, and the subject of secret deliberations. In the spring of 1785, an application was indirectly made to general Washington to induce him to use his influence in favor of a new constitution. That gentleman referred the arguments on the subject to a member of the legislature of Virginia. About the close of that year, a proposition was made and carried in the legislature to appoint commissioners, to form a system of commercial regulations for the United States, and to request the other *states to concur* in the measure.

Of the Formation of the New Conſtitution. In purſuance of the requeſt of Virginia, moſt of the ſtates appointed delegates, who aſſembled at Annapolis September 14, 1786. But on examining their commiſſions, it was judged that their powers were too limited to enable them to accompliſh any deſirable purpoſe. They therefore adjourned, with inſtructions to adviſe the ſtates to appoint agents with more ample powers, to meet at Philadelphia, the next year. Accordingly delegates from the ſeveral ſtates aſſembled in that city in May 1787, and appointed the venerable Waſhington for their preſident. That gentleman had retired to his farm in 1783, with a fixed determination never more to engage in public affairs; but he was ſelected by Virginia as one of the delegates, on this important occaſion, and preſſed to accept the appointment. After four months deliberation the convention agreed to a frame of government for the United States, and recommended it to the ſeveral ſtates for adoption.

Of the Ratification of the Federal Government. The ſtates referred the queſtion of adopting the frame of government, to conventions appointed for that expreſs purpoſe. On that occaſion popular jealouſy appeared in all its force. It was objected, that the plan of government propoſed, abridged the ſtates of their ſovereignty, and amounted to a conſolidation. This was a fruitful theme of declamation, notwithſtanding all the calamities that had ariſen from the jealouſies and claſhing intereſts of the ſtates, and a want of uniformity in public meaſures. Many other objections were urged, eſpecially in the large ſtates. At length however, the propoſed frame of federal government was accepted and ratified in 1788, by eleven ſtates, and became the conſtitution of the United States. The firſt convention in North Carolina rejected it; as did the town meetings to which it was referred in Rhode Iſland. But North Carolina acceded to it in November 1789, and Rhode Iſland in May 1790. The ratification of the conſtitution was celebrated in the large cities, with great joy and ſplendid exhibitions. A ſhip, the emblem of commerce, and ſtages for mechanical labor, the emblems of

manufactures, were mounted on wheels and drawn through the ſtreets, attended by immenſe proceſſions of citizens arranged according to their profeſſions; while bands of muſic, ſtreaming flags and the roar of cannon, manifeſted the enthuſiaſm with which the people received the authority of the national government.

Of the Organization of the New Conſtitution. According to the conſtitution, the ſeveral ſtates elected their delegates to the congreſs, and by a unanimous vote, general Waſhington was elected the firſt preſident. With deep regret, that diſtinguiſhed citizen was compelled, by the eſteem and confidence of his fellow citizens, to leave his beloved retirement, and accept the high office of ſupreme magiſtrate. On the 30th of April 1789, he was inaugurated, preſident of the United States. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of the city-hall in New-York, in preſence of a countleſs multitude of ſpectators; where the oath was adminiſtered to him by the chancellor of the ſtate of New-York. The importance of the act, the novelty of the ſcene, the dignity of the general's character, the gravity of his manner, and the reverence with which he bowed to kiſs the ſacred volume, impreſſed upon the tranſaction a ſolemnity never before witneſſed in America.

SECTION XV.

United States of America.

Of the Situation of the United States.

THE territory of the United States lies in the temperate or variable climate of North America, between the thirty-firſt and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude; and the ſixty-third and ninety-ſeventh degrees of longitude weſt from Grenwich, in England.

Of the Northern Boundary of the United States. The *northern limit* of the United States is, a line beginning at

a point due north of the source of the eastern branch of the river Scooduc, on the high lands which divide the rivers which fall into the Atlantic on one side, and the river Iroquois or St. Lawrence on the other; thence extending along the high lands to the north-west-most head of Connecticut river; thence down the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of latitude, and running in that latitude to the Iroquois; thence along the middle of that river and of the great lakes to the lake of the woods and from the north-west-most point of that lake, due west to the Mississippi.*

Of the other Limits of the United States. The western limit of the United States is, a line drawn along the middle of the Mississippi to the termination of the thirty-first degree of north latitude. The fourthen limit is a line drawn due east in the said thirty-first degree of latitude, from the Mississippi to the river Apalachicola, or Catahochy, and along the middle of that river to its junction with Flint river; thence a strait line to the head of the river St. Mary, and down the middle of that river to the Atlantic. The eastern limit of the United States is, a line drawn from the mouth of the Scooduc along the middle of the river to the source of its eastern branch, and thence a due north line to the highlands; and the shore of the main land from that river to St. Mary; but the jurisdiction of the United States extends to all the islands lying in the Atlantic, within twenty leagues of the main land.

Of the Extent of the United States. The length of the United States, from north to south is, on on average, one thousand miles—the bredth, on the north line, is fifteen hundred miles, and on the south, seven hundred; giving an area or surface of more than one thousand miles square, and containing at least six hundred and forty millions of acres. Of this area, it is estimated that water covers about fifty millions of acres, which leaves five hundred and ninety millions of acres of land.

* *Late discoveries* prove that the northern sources of the Mississippi are far south of a west line from the lake of the woods, so that a part of the western limit of the *United States is not* defined by the treaty of peace made in 1783.

Of the Climate of the United States. With respect to climate, the Atlantic states may be divided into three regions. The first or northern region comprehends that part of the territory, lying north of the beginning of the fortieth degree of latitude, in which there is a predominance of cold and severe frost in winter. This region includes the states of New-Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, and a part of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania. The second or middle region comprehends the territory from the fortieth to the thirty-seventh degree of latitude, in which the weather of winter is very variable, and subject to continual alterations of frost and rain. This region includes a part of New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and the states of Delaware, Maryland and Virginia. The third or southern region, from the thirty-seventh to the thirty first degree of latitude, and including the Carolinas and Georgia, has a predominance of mild weather in winter, though it is not exempt from occasional frosts.

Of the Temperature of the Several Regions. The United States are subject to the extremes of heat and cold. The winters in the northern region usually commence in December and end in February. The earth is covered with snow, and the rivers with ice, from eight to twelve weeks. But in hard winters, the frost begins about the middle or latter part of November and ends in March. In mild winters, there is no severe frost of many days continuance, and little snow—In the middle region, the frost is less steady, though often severe. In ordinary winters, the rivers are occasionally obstructed with ice, but not for a great length of time, and snow is of short duration. In hard winters, the rivers in this region are covered with a bridge of ice, for six or eight weeks. In the southern region, the frosts of an ordinary winter are very inconsiderable, and snow is scarcely seen. In hard winters frost and snow continue sometimes for several days and even weeks.

Of the number of severe Winters. Winters of the utmost severity seldom exceed four or five in a hundred

years. Those which are less severe, but which may called cold winters, are one third or at least a four the whole number. Very mild winters, in which is little frost and snow in the northern region, are n as rare as very hard winters. These remarks are ap ble to all parts of the territory of the United States, of the mountains. On the west of the mountains weather is milder in the same latitudes, and storms of rain, and snow, less frequent and violent.

Of the Temperature of the Summer Heat. In all pa the United States, the heat of summer is very great the southern region, the summer commences in Ap May, and ends in October or November. In the m and northern regions, the heat of summer begins in or June, and ends in September, or in the northern p the territory, in August. In the more northerly pa the United States, frost is seen in almost every mon the year. In general, the winters in America, are as in the fortieth degree of latitude, as they are in Euro the fiftieth.

Of Spring and Autumn. The spring of the year is ked with very variable weather, in every part of the ted States. Warm days succeeded by cold nights, a rately thawing and freezing the surface of the ea bleak westerly winds, followed by warm humid w from the south, or damp chilly winds from the east, tinguish the months of March and April—and freque the first weeks in May are distinguished by almost con easterly rains. Autumn is a far more pleasant sea From the latter part of September to the middle of vember, sometimes much later, the weather is tempe and dry, and to the blessings of abundant crops, is ad a serene sky, which enables the farmer to collect and se the fruits of the earth.

Of the proportion of Dry Weather. America is rem able for a great proportion of dry weather. About hundred and fifty days in the year, on an average, nearly unclouded. The days which are mostly clou

do not exceed seventy or eighty; and those in which rain or snow falls the whole day, are scarcely half the number.

Of the Winds. The winds most prevalent in the Atlantic States are from the westward—in winter they are north-westerly, and in summer, south-westerly. These are dry winds, and especially the north-westerly winds, which are accompanied with a rapid evaporation, and consequently in summer are cool and refreshing, and in winter, very cold. North winds are not very frequent, but are always cool or cold. North-easterly and easterly winds are frequent in all seasons, except the summer months, and are accompanied with a chilling dampness, which occasions the most disagreeable sensations. A south-east wind, at least in the northern and middle regions, seldom or never fails to produce rain, in twelve hours; and often blows a tempest, but is of short duration, seldom exceeding twelve hours. Nor are gales of wind from the south-east, on the American coast, of great extent—they usually begin within a hundred miles of the coast, and seldom reach a hundred miles into the interior country—often not half the distance. A south wind is usually warm, and often attended with rain.

Of Sea Breezes. On all the coast of the United States, westward and southward of Cape Cod, a current of air from the ocean is cool and refreshing in summer. To the northward of that cape, the sea breezes are attended with a fog, or a cool damp vapor, which is chilling to the human body and very disagreeable. In spring, these breezes prevail on all the coast from Cape Cod to Newfoundland; and are often accompanied with thick fogs, occasioned probably by a condension of the warm vapors from the gulf stream. These fogs prevail till June or July, and are not more unpleasant to the feelings, than troublesome and dangerous to seamen. To the westward of Montauk Point, these fogs are far less common.

Of Storms. The most durable gales of wind are from the north-east. These, in spring and autumn, are usually accompanied with rain, and in winter with snow; but a long continued dry north-east wind sometimes occurs, es-

pecialy in ſummer. This wind occurs but rarely in the ſummer months, in the northern and middle regions of the United States. It ſweeps the Atlantic coaſt, but rarely penetrates beyond the mountains weſtward. It is obſerved, that a north-eaſt ſtorm begins at the ſouth-weſt, and is felt in the ſouthern parts of the United States, before it is in the northern.

Of Summer Rains. The rains of ſummer are of two kinds; durable rains from the eaſt or ſouth, or ſudden and temporary ſhowers. In ſome years the ſummer rains are moſtly from the ſouth or ſouth-eaſt, attended with a humid ſtate of atmoſphere, extremely relaxing to the human body. Such rains are not uſually accompanied with thunder. Sudden ſhowers collect in the weſt, in hot weather, or after two or three days of extreme heat; and uſually between noon and evening. A black cloud is ſpeedily formed, and driven by violent wind from the north-weſt or weſt, accompanied with livid flaſhes of lightning and tremendous thunder, with torrents of rain or hail. The duration of theſe ſhowers is from half an hour to three hours. Sometimes theſe ſhowers are attended with a hurricane of wind, called a tornado, driving forward with a whirling motion, twiſting off the trunks of the firmeſt trees, and levelling buildings, fences and plants in promiſcuous deſtruction.

Of the Effects of theſe Showers. The ſummer ſhowers, collecting over the mountainous parts of the country and accompanied with a current of air from the cool regions of the atmoſphere, not only refreſh vegitation by a copious ſupply of water, but bring along a portion of pure and cool air, which is highly ſalubrious and invigorating to the human body, when almoſt exhauſted with extreme heat: and for a day or two after the guſt, the wind uſually blows from the weſtward. At the ſame time the coolneſs of the air is increaſed and continued by the rapid evaporation which follows a ſhower; the heat of the earth combining with the water, being carried off in an inviſible form.

Of the Weather Westward of the Mountains. That part of the United States which lies westward of the high lands, which divide the streams falling into the Atlantic, from those which fall into the lakes and the Mississippi, has a more temperate climate than the same latitudes on the Atlantic, and is less subject to violent storms. It is remarkable also that showers collect more suddenly over that part of the country—the rain does not begin gradually, but almost instantly pours down a torrent of water—and all at once it ceases, as in the twinkling of an eye. Snow falls frequently and without wind. Thunder also is less frequent in some parts of the interior country, than it is eastward of the mountains.

Of the Climate in Regard to Health. The northern Atlantic region of the United States, being mostly dry, hilly land is favored with a pure air and good water, and distinguished by the salubrity of its climate. In a very few places, low and marshy lands are found to produce autumnal diseases. The mountainous parts of the middle and southern regions, are, as in all parts of the globe, healthy. From the Hudson southward, the flat lands along the Atlantic and by the sides of rivers, are infested with autumnal fevers. In the northern region, one half the children born live to be nineteen years old—one seventh live to the age of seventy, and one thirteenth, to eighty. The annual deaths amount only to one in seventy or seventy-five of all the inhabitants living.

Of the Diseases of the United States. The ordinary diseases of the United States are the same as those which invade mankind in all similar climates. The usual epidemics are hooping cough, measles, influenza, scarlet fever, with some milder eruptive diseases. These diseases are periodical, tho the periods are not exactly uniform. The autumnal diseases are chiefly dysentery and bilous fevers of all grades, from slight intermittents to the malignant fever, which is denominated pestilence. The dysentery appears, in scattered cases, every year; but in some autumns becomes epidemic with great mortality. It however never invades large cities with such general mortality, as it does partic-

ular parts of the country. The malignant bilious fever occurs occasionally, but chiefly in large towns on the sea coast, or on rivers, or near lakes and stagnant water.

Of Chronic Diseases. In the northern region of the United States, and especially on the sea shore, the consumption is the most general and fatal chronic complaint; carrying off in some places, a fifth, or even a fourth of the inhabitants. In the middle region, it is prevalent, but in a less degree; and in the southern, is still less destructive. Rheumatic complaints, gout and hypochondriac affections are common. In the country west of the mountains, between the Ohio and the lakes, the goiter, or swelling upon the throat, is very prevalent, among the whites, but not among the natives.

SECTION XVI.

Vegetable Productions.

Of the Native Trees of the United States.

IN the variety, size and beauty of its forest trees, no country can exceed the United States. The kinds of trees found in every part of our country are, oak, pine, maple, beech, ash, spruce, fir, hemlock, hickory, elm, chestnut, willow, poplar, cedar, locust, sassafras, laurel, birch, cherry, bass-wood, butternut, hornbeam, bay, button-wood, elder, dog-wood. Of several of these kinds there are many varieties.

Of Trees peculiar to Particular regions. The black-walnut is indigenous, in the country southward of the Hudson, and not eastward; but when transplanted, it grows well in New-England. The persimmon, chincopin, catalpa, papaw, plane-tree, magnolia, aloe cypress, paccan, pimento, and some others, are found solely or chiefly in the *middle, southern* and western regions of the United States. *The live oak,* the best of timber for ships, is a native of *the southern* regions, chiefly of the islands on the coast o

South Carolina and Georgia, and of the Miſſiſippi territory.

Of Shrubs and wild Fruit Trees. The crab-apple is found in all parts of the United States, and in the ſouthern and middle regions, cider is made of its fruit. Moſt parts of this country abound with wild cherries, currants, grapes, ſtrawberries, huckleberries, blackberries, dewberries, raſpberries, barberries, mulberries, bayberries, juniper berries, filberts, hazle-nuts, bilberries, plums, gooſeberries, ſumac, honey-ſuckle, myrtle, cranberries. The latter ſhrub is peculiar to America, and furniſhes our tables with one of the richeſt ſauces.

Of Foreign Trees and Fruits Cultivated in America. Moſt of the fruit trees cultivated on the eaſtern continent, thrive well in the United States. Among theſe are apples, peaches, pears, quinces, cherries, plums, apricots, nectarines, gooſeberries, raſpberries, melons, oranges, lemons, figs, pomgranates, olives, and almonds. Apples thrive beſt in the middle and northern regions—peaches and melons, in the ſouthern. The peach is found in a good degree of perfection as far north as Boſton, but farther northward, degenerates, and is cultivated with difficulty. Oranges, lemons, pomgranates, almonds, figs, and olives, grow as far north as Virginia, but are ſubject to be killed by the froſts of winter—In South-Carolina and Georgia, they are cultivated with ſucceſs.

Of Garden Vegetables. Every ſpecies of vegetable, cultivated for the uſe of the table in the old world, thrives well in America. Of theſe we have peas, beans, cabbages, caulliflowers, ſpinnage, celery, lettuce, aſparagus, turnips, onions, beets, radiſhes, carrots, parſnips, cucumbers, and a variety of other kinds, uſed in cookery and for medicinal purpoſes. The ſugar cane has been lately introduced into the Miſſiſippi territory, and is cultivated with ſucceſs, affording ſugar of the beſt quality.

Of Plants Indigenous in America. Maiz, potatoes, tobacco, pumpkins, ſquaſhes, hops and ginſeng, are native *productions* of America. Of theſe the three firſt are of *the moſt uſe.* Maiz, commonly called Indian corn,

one of the most extensively useful grains known in the world; as it thrives through a range of nearly one hundred degrees of latitude, or fifty degrees on each side of the equator, and is one of the most nourishing articles of food for man and beast. In the southern parts of the United States, this plant grows to the height of twelve or fourteen feet, and the ear springs from the twelfth or thirteenth joint, far above the reach of a man standing on the ground—In the middle parts of the United States, the species cultivated grow to the height of eight or ten feet, and the ears spring from the fifth, sixth, or seventh joint—In the more northern parts and in Canada, a species of four or five feet growth, with ears shooting from the second and third joints, is the only one which the shortness of the summer heat, will permit to come to maturity. What an admirable proof is this of the wisdom and goodness of the Creator, thus to fit the several species of this all-important grain, to the several climates of the globe!

Of the Potatoe. The discovery of America added this invaluable root to the esculent vegetables of the eastern continent. It was found and carried to Europe by some of the adventurers under sir Walter Raleigh. The ease with which it is cultivated, the great quantity of food which it furnishes from a small portion of land, the little injury that its cultivation does to the soil, and its nourishing qualities, which render it a substitute for bread, and the ease and little expense of dressing it for the table, render it one of the most useful plants, especially to the poor; and its cultivation has, in no small degree, diminished the chances of famin, which was formerly so frequent in Europe.

Of Tobacco. When tobacco was first introduced into England, king James issued a proclamation against the use of such an offensive plant. But the prejudices against it gradually subsided, and it now forms a considerable article of consumption in all parts of the world. It thrives well in all parts of the United States.—In the northern region, it is cultivated chiefly for domestic use, but in the

middle states, chiefly in Maryland and Virginia, it constitutes an important article of export.

Of the Kinds of Grain, not Indigenous. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, millet and rice, have been introduced into the United States. Of these wheat is the most generally cultivated, and is esteemed the finest grain. On suitable soils, which are the dry and gravelly, or the rich mold of new lands, it thrives in every part of the United States, except on the Atlantic shore of the eastern states. Even in that part of the country, it was cultivated with success for thirty or forty years after our ancestors settled in America, but it now fails. Rice is cultivated only in the Carolinas and Georgia, where it is raised in great quantities, for exportation. The other species of grain grow well in any part of the United States, and since the failure of wheat in the eastern states, rye is much used for bread, either alone, or mixed with maiz, or, in some parts, where wheat will grow, with a small portion of wheat, which mixture is called meslin.

Of Plants cultivated for Clothing. Hemp and flax grow well in all parts of the United States, where the soil is sufficiently rich and suitable. Flax is every where raised for clothing, in greater or less quantities, and manufactured into coarse cloth. The seed is exported to Ireland, or furnishes oil for paints. Hemp for cordage may be cultivated generally, but its culture is confined to a few towns. Cotton grows well in the southern and western parts of the United States, and is cultivated in great quantities, as well for domestic manufacture, as for exportation. Indigo thrives well in the Carolinas and Georgia, as well as in the Mississippi territory, and was formerly a considerable article of export; but the high price of cotton has lately occasioned the culture of indigo to be neglected.

Of Silk and Vines. Silk may be cultivated in all parts of the United States, care being taken to preserve the eggs of the worms from the frost in winter. The attempts made in New-England to introduce the culture demonstrate that the climate and soil are favorable, and that nothing but the high price of labor prevents an attenti

to this object. Vines are the spontaneous production of all parts of this country, and some species of native grapes are of an excellent quality. The species of foreign grapes, which yield some of the best wines in Europe, are introduced and thrive well, in the middle and even in some part of the northern region of the United States; but the making of wine is yet confined to a few places.

SECTION XVII.

Animals of the United States.

Of Native Animals.

THE following quadrupeds are natives of the United States, the buffalo, moose, elk, bear, deer, wolf, wild cat or lynx, panther, catamount, wolverin, fox, beaver, otter, martin, raccoon, hare, rabbit, muskrat or musquash, weasel, squirrel of several kinds, one kind of rat opossum, skunk, mink, woodchuck, ermin, seal, mole, *field* mouse, porcupine. Many of these animals, fitted to live only in the forest, retire westward as cultivation proceeds in that direction, and are no longer seen near the Atlantic.

Of the Mammoth. On the Wallkill in the state of New-York; near the salt-licks in Kentucky; and in other parts of America have been found the bones of some huge animal now extinct. It is supposed by some to have been of the elephant species, and has obtained the appellation of *Mammoth*. A skeleton of this animal, nearly complete may be seen in the Museum at Philadelphia. Its size is that of the largest species of elephant, and a tall man may walk upright under its belly. This beast must have fed himself by means of a proboscis, as the neck is not long enough to reach the earth, when standing; but the form of *the teeth, and jaws, and especially the spiral form and position of its tusks,* make it certain that the animal was *different from* any which is now known to exist.

Of Domestic Animals. The animals kept by man for use, are derived from such as were imported: such as the horse, cattle of all kinds, sheep, asses, goats, dogs, cats, swine. All these thrive well in the United States. The mountainous districts of the southern states, and all parts of the northern furnish oxen and cows of the largest and best kind. The sheep are inferior to the best in Europe. Elegant horses of English breed are raised, chiefly in the middle and southern states, and a race of dutch horses, very large and excellent for draft, in Pennsylvania. In New-England and Canada, the horses are smaller but very hardy and serviceable.

Of Wild Fowls. The wild fowls of the United States are too numerous to be specified. Some of the most remarkable are, the eagle, falcon, hawks of various sorts, herons, owls, swans, crows, turkies, geese, ducks of many kinds, pelicans, brants, pigeons, partridges, quails, woodcocks, woodpeckers of various sorts, swallows, martins, buzzards, blackbirds, robins, larks, blue birds, rens, sparrows, gulls, plovers, snipes, cranes and storks.

Of Domestic Fowls. The domestic fowls are of foreign origin, as the goose, duck, pigeons, and dunghill fowls. They thrive in all parts of this country. The wild goose and turkey may be tamed, but the turky, which grows to the weight of thirty pounds or more when wild, degenerates by domestication.

Of Birds of Passage. Some species of birds leave the cold regions in autumn, and visit the more southern climes. Wild geese and pigeons, and some kinds of ducks are of this sort. Many kinds of fowls are so hardy as to remain, and fly about in the severity of ordinary winters, without danger, as the crow, the partridge, quail and snow-bird. But in very hard winters, these birds are known to perish in great numbers. The swallow, about the last week in August, seeks a shelter in ponds, rivers and marshes, and remains torpid till spring. But most kinds of birds retreat to the cavities of hollow trees, and like places.

Of Fishes. The sea and rivers in the United States, abound with an immense variety of fish, many of them of

the most useful kind. Whales are often caught near the coast. Codfish are taken on the shores of the northern region, and on the banks of Newfoundland, in such abundance, as to form a large article of our exports. Holibut, haddock, mullet, whiting, plaice, mackarel, bass, tetaug or blackfish, sheeps head, and a great variety of small fish, fill our markets at most seasons of the year. Alewives are caught in vast numbers for foreign markets, and menhaden or white fish, for manuring land; and our rivers abound with sturgeon.

Of Shad and Salmon. In April and May, the rivers are stocked with shad in immense numbers, and furnish the inhabitants with no small part of their food. The salmon, in the same months, frequent the rivers from the north to the Connecticut, in which they are taken in great numbers. But that fish is never found in rivers which discharge into the Atlantic westward of the Connecticut. The small streams abound with trout, roach, perch and eels, and the lakes, with their tributary streams, are well supplied with excellent fish, especially with the pike and salmon trout of a large size.

Of Shell Fish. Oysters of the best kinds cover the shores of the United States. Lobsters of the largest kind abound in many places. Crabs, shrimps, muscles, and clams of various species are found in our harbors and creeks; and we are occasionally favored with turtle from the more southern climes. No country can boast of a richer profusion of food, constantly furnished from the hills, the forest, and the bosom of the deep!

Of Amphibious Animals. Our swamps and ponds abound with frogs, one species of which called a bull frog, is very large. The tortoise or turtle is common to all parts of America. Animals of the lizard kind are numerous; and the aligator or crocodile, the largest of that species, is found in the rivers of the southern states.

Of Serpents. The principal species of these animals are the rattle snake, the black snake of several kinds, the viper, the adder of several sorts, one of which is amphibious and another frequents houses, the green and striped snake

The rattle snake has a fatal poison in a bag, at the root of his large teeth, which when he bites is conveyed by a small opening through the teeth, to the object bitten. But this snake is slow in his movement, and usually gives notice of his presence by a buzzing noise made with the rattles at the end of his tail. He lives among the rocks, and in summer descends into the meadows. It is remarkable that the lands which are covered with beech and maple trees, and contain no rocky precipices, are free from all large venemous serpents.

Of small reptiles and insects. The United States, in common with all warm and temperate climates, abound with small animals of the reptile and insect kinds. Few of them however are venemous; the honey bee is very useful, and in the mountains and hilly parts of the country, none of them are vexatious. Near swamps and marshes, the musketoes, and in some places, gnats, are extremely troublesome. In the flat lands in the Carolinas and Georgia, it is necessary for people to defend themselves at night against the musketoes, by surrounding their beds with gauze curtains or pavilions.

Of the Locust and the Grasshopper. Locusts appear, in vast numbers, at particular times, and are supposed to be periodical; but in the United States they do little injury. Grasshoppers are seen every summer; but are harmless, except in very dry seasons, when they multiply to an astonishing degree, and devour the grass, corn and other useful vegetables.

Of the Canker worm. In the northern and middle states, canker worms appear at certain times, in such numbers as to injure the apple tree. Their appearance seems to be periodical. They are most destructive to trees on light, dry land—and seldom invade trees which stand on a stiff clay, or moist land. They are produced from an egg deposited on the trees by a miller, which comes from the earth and ascends the trees in spring as soon as the frost is dissolved. To prevent their ascent, it is usual to encircle the trees with tar, and this, if applied to a wisp or band of tow, around the trees, will not injure the

These worms feed till June, stripping the trees of their foliage—then suddenly disappear. They generally appear, for two, three or four years in succession.

Of other noxious Insects. Caterpillars, of various species, appear, at times, in such numbers, as to be very destructive to fruit trees, and some forest trees. The rose bug and the slug also, in particular seasons, do great injury. A white worm, or grub, in some parts of the country devours the roots of the grass, and gives to the rich meadow and pasture the appearance of a barren heath. A black worm occasionally invades the grass and corn in May and June, and in such myriads as to lay waste the fields; and an insect has lately attacked the wheat. But although these and many other insects ravage at times particular places, or particular sorts of vegetation, yet our crops are usually rich and abundant.

SECTION XVIII.

Mines, Minnerals, Stones and Fossils.

Of the Precious Metals.

WITHIN the United States, gold and silver ores have not been discovered in such quantities as to command attention; except recently in Cabarras county in North Carolina. A copper mine, on the Passaic, a few miles north of Newark in New-Jersey, has been wrought to advantage, and an association by the name of the Soho company, has been incorporated for the purpose of prosecuting the business. Great quantities of copper have also been found in the country bordering on Lake Superior.

Of Lead. A valuable lead mine has been wrought, near the banks of the Kanhaway, in Virginia. One hundred pounds of ore are said to yield sixty of lead. Still *more valuable* mines have been discovered on the banks *of the Mississippi*, extending from the Rock River northwards *one hundred and fifty miles.* In Louisiana, near the

Miſſorie, very rich mines of lead are wrought by a citizen of the United States.

Of Iron. Iron is found in many parts of the United States, as in Aſſowamſet pond, in Middleborough, in Maſſachuſetts—at Saliſbury and Stafford in Connecticut—at Egg-Harbor, and in Morris county, in New-Jerſey—on the Hudſon in Columbia county—and in other parts, too numerous to be particularized. This valuable metal is caſt into cannon, hollow ware, or pigs, and wrought into anchors, bars and nail rods. But our own mines and forges do not ſupply the conſumption of the country, and large quantities of Swediſh iron and ſteel in bars are imported from the Baltic.

Of valuable Stones. The United States are furniſhed with inexhauſtible quantities of lime ſtone. A range of this ſtone extends from Connecticut, through the weſtern towns of Maſſachuſetts and Vermont, to the Miſſiſko, more than two hundred miles, furniſhing an abundance of lime. In ſome places it furniſhes marble, both white and clouded, of a good quality for the foundations of buildings, for ſteps, tomb ſtones and other uſes. On the Schuylkill a few miles from Philadelphia, is found marble of a good quality, which ſupplies the inhabitants with building ſtones, pieces for chimnies, hearths and tomb ſtones. Of this is built that large and handſome ſtructure, the bank of Penſylvania. Many other parts of this country abound with marble and limeſtone. Kentucky is underſpread with limeſtone, and a body of it runs through North Carolina.

Of Free Stone and Slate. Free ſtone ſuitable for the foundation of buildings abounds in various parts of America, as at Chatham, Eaſt-Hartford, Branford and Eaſt-Haven in Connecticut, and on the banks of the Paſſaic in New-Jerſey. Slate has been found in various places, and on the eaſt bank of the Hudſon, above Fiſhkill, a quarry of it is wrought with ſucceſs; great quantities of ſlate of a good kind and ſuitable for covering buildings, being ſent to market from this quarry.

Of Fossil, Coal and Peat. Coal for fuel is furnished by the United States, in the greatest abundance. A mine on the Powhatan river, in Virginia, is now wrought and coal of the best quality is sent from it to various parts of the United States. On the Susquehanna—on the Ohio—near Pittsburgh, and in Kentucky, are vast beds of this fuel destined hereafter to furnish our fires when wood shall fail. Peat is found at Newtown, on Long-Island, at Norwalk, Fairfield, Woodbridge and Hambden in Connecticut; and already begins to be used by the inhabitants, and exported to New-York. It is also found in other parts of the United States.

Of other Fossils and Minerals. Isingglass, black lead, allum, ocher, soap-stone, sulphur, marl, chalk, and antimony have been found in the United States. But the natural history of North America, more especially its mineral productions, have yet been little investigated.—Doubtless many mineral substances, constituting a vast body of natural riches, remain yet undiscovered in the bosom of mountains; but which, when labor shall be cheaper, the study of mineralogy pursued with more ardor, and the wants of our people more pressing, will be found and converted to useful purposes.

Of Mineral Springs. Numerous mineral springs have already been discovered in the United Sates. At Stafford in Connecticut is a spring whose waters possess chalybeate properties, and are valued for their effects in scorbutic and rheumatic cases. The warm spring at Lebanon in the state of New-York, is remarkable for the quantity and temperature of the water it discharges—Its temperature is marked by 71° of Farenheit, which renders it a pleasant bath—The effects of its waters in curing scorbutic and rheumatic affections, have rendered it a place of resort during the summer months.

Of the Springs at Saratoga and Balltown. The Springs at Saratoga and Balltown are numerous, and their waters *possess* strong mineral properties. Some of them are *powerful* chalybeates—and others contain solutions of *salt, from* which is manufactured purgative salt equal to

any imported. Theſe ſprings are places of great reſort in ſummer, and their waters are found very beneficial in billious complaints, indigeſtions and viſceral obſtructions.

Of other Springs. In the town of Phelps, ſixteen miles north of the Seneka Lake, is a ſpring ſo ſtrongly impregnated with ſulphur, that its waters depoſit large quantities of that ſubſtance on the earth in their channel. The ſalt ſprings near the Onondago lake, are numerous, and contain ſuch a portion of ſalt in ſolution, that it is eaſily obtained by evaporation; and ſufficient quantities are there made to ſupply all the interior of the ſtate of New-York—indeed the quantity that may be made is unlimited. In Virginia and Georgia are medicinal ſprings of high reputation, and in Kentucky, ſalt ſprings are found to ſupply the weſtern ſtates with the neceſſary article of ſalt. Similar ſprings are found in other parts of the weſtern country.

SECTION XIX.

PRESENT CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES,

Eſpecially in regard to their Political, Civil, Commercial and Economical ſtate.

Of the Diviſion of the Territory of the United States.

THE territory of the United States is divided, for the purpoſes of government, into ſtates or commonwealths; and into diſtricts ſubject to the ordinances of congreſs. The ſtates are ſeventeen; fourteen of which lie chiefly on the eaſt and ſouth of the great ridge of mountains which divide the waters of the Atlantic rivers from the tributary ſtreams of the Miſſiſippi, the Iroquois and the Lakes—and three ſtates lie weſtward of the ſame ridge. Thirteen of theſe ſtates were formed, during the *revolution,* from colonies whoſe bounds had been defined *by charters,* or ſettled by agreement or authority, whi

subject to the British crown. The other four have been formed and received into the union, since the establishment of independence.

Of the Names of the States. The Atlantic states are, New-Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia. All these, Vermont excepted, were formed during the revolution. The western states which have been erected since the revolution, are Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio. The country west of Georgia and south of Tennessee, is called the Mississippi Territory, and governed by a special ordinance of Congress.

New-Hampshire.

Of the Situation of New-Hampshire. New-Hampshire, whose name is derived from a county in England, from whence many of its first inhabitants came, is comprehended between forty-two degrees, forty-one minutes, and forty-five degrees, thirty minutes, of north latitude; and between seventy degrees, forty minutes, and seventy-two degrees, twenty-eight minutes, of west longitude *from* Greenwich.

Of its Bounds. The south line of New-Hampshire, adjacent to Massachusetts, runs three miles north of the Merrimac, to a point north of Patucket falls, and thence due west to the Connecticut. Its west boundary is the western side of the Connecticut, which separates it from Vermont. On the north, it is bounded by the north line of the United States, and adjacent to Canada. Its eastern boundary is the Atlantic and the Piscataway to its source; then a line running two degrees west of north to Canada, and dividing it from Maine.

Of its Extent. The length of New-Hampshire, from south to north, is one hundred and sixty-eight miles. Its utmost bredth, from east to west, is ninety miles. The *state contains* somewhat more than six millions of acres *of surface,* about one hundred thousand of which are *covered with* water.

Of its Counties and Towns. This ſtate is divided into ſix counties—Rockingham, Strafford, Hillſborough, Cheſhire, Grafton and Cohos. It contains nearly two hundred incorporated townſhips, beſides other diſtricts called locations. The chief towns are Portſmouth, Exeter, Concord, Amherſt, Keene, Charleſtown, Walpole, Haverhill and Plymouth.

Of Portſmouth. Portſmouth, the largeſt town in New-Hampſhire, and a ſeat of the courts in Rockingham county, is ſituated on the ſouth bank of the Piſcataway, about two miles from the ſea, ſixty-three miles north-eaſt of Boſton, in latitude 43. 5. north. It is the only commercial town and ſea port in the ſtate, and is a place of conſiderable trade. Its buildings are chiefly of wood, and a large quarter of the town was laid in aſhes by a fire in December 1802. Its public buildings are a court-houſe, a market-houſe, a bank, a work-houſe, three congregational churches, one epiſcopal, and one for univerſaliſts.—Its inhabitants in 1800 were five thouſand three hundred and forty. In this town are two banks.

Of Exeter. Exeter lies upon the Swamſcot, a branch of the Paſcataway, at the falls, fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Portſmouth. It is one of the ſeats of the courts in Rockingham, contains a court-houſe, a jail, two congregational churches, a handſome academy and a bank. It lies at the head of navigation, contains a number of mills, and is remarkable for ſhip-building. Its inhabitants by the cenſus of the year 1800, were ſeventeen hundred and thirty.

Of Concord. Concord is a handſome town, on the weſt bank of the Merrimac, about fifty-five miles north-weſterly from Portſmouth. It contains a congregational church and an academy, and is the ſeat of government. Juſt below the town in an elegant toll bridge acroſs the Merrimac. In the year 1800, the inhabitants were two thouſand and fifty.

Of other conſiderable Towns. Amherſt, the ſhire town of Hillſborough county, on a branch of Souhegan river, *ſixty miles weſt of* Portſmouth, contained in the year 1800, *two thouſand,* one hundred and ſifty inhabitants, and ar

academy. Keene, in Cheshire county, contained in the year 1800, sixteen hundred and fifty inhabitants, and has a bank. Charlestown, on the Connecticut, in the same year, contained thirteen hundred and sixty inhabitants. Walpole, in the same year, contained seventeen hundred and fifty inhabitants. Plymouth, a seat of the courts in Grafton county, on Baker's river, at its junction with the Pemigewasset, forty-five miles north of Concord, contained in the year 1800, seven hundred and fifty inhabitants. Hanover, the seat of Dartmouth college, contained in the same year, nineteen hundred and twenty inhabitants. At this place is a bridge over the Connecticut, consisting of a single arch of one hundred and forty feet chord. At the falls in Walpole, there is also a bridge over this river. Haverhill, on the Connecticut, is a considerable town and has a bank.

Of the general Face of the Country. The state of New-Hampshire, like all the northern region of the United States, is hilly or mountainous; except some plains and marshes on the sea shore or the banks of rivers. The meadows and intervals are of a rich mold, and free from stones; but the soil of the upland is gravel, sandy *loam*, clay or a mixture.

Of the chief Mountains. A range of mountains runs between the Connecticut and Merrimac; beginning with the Monadnock, near the south line of the state, and running north, it is distinguished by the Sunnapee, and Mooshelock, or Mooselhilloc, and finally it terminates in the most lofty elevations in New-England, the White Mountains. There are other mountains on the east of the Merrimac, but less elevated.

Of the chief Rivers. The Connecticut washes the west border of the state; the Merrimac penetrates a considerable part of it from north to south, and with its tributary streams, waters the interior of the state. The Pascataway, with its tributary streams, waters the eastern parts of *the state;* the Sauco and Androscoggin the northern *parts.*

Of the Ponds and Lakes. Winipiſiógy lake, twenty-two miles in length; Umbagog, in the northern part of the ſtate; Squam, Sunnapay, and great Oſſapy, are the principal bodies of ſtanding water; but the ſmaller ponds are numerous.

Of the Population. The number of inhabitants in New-Hampſhire in the year 1767, was eſtimated at fifty-two thouſand—in 1775, at eighty-two thouſand—and by actual enumeration in 1790, the number was one hundred and forty-two thouſand. In 1800, the number had increaſed to one hundred and eighty-four thouſand.

Of the Exports. The chief articles of export are ſhips, lumber, fiſh, beef, pork and other proviſions, horſes, pot and pearl aſhes, and flax-ſeed. Ship building has always been the employment of the towns on the Paſcataway and its branches. Lumber and fiſh are carried to the Weſt-Indies, Spain, or the Azores and Canaries; horſes, beef and pork to the Weſt-Indies; pot and pearl aſhes to Great-Britain, and flax-ſeed to Ireland.

Of the course of Trade before the War. Before the revolution, the king claimed the pine trees ſuitable for maſts, and his navy was furniſhed from America with maſts and ſpars, a great part of which were cut in New-Hampſhire. Ships were built and loaded for the Weſt-Indies; and there they took freight for England, where they were ſold; or they were freighted with timber and ſpars directly for England, and ſold. With the proceeds, the merchants paid for their Britiſh goods.

Of the Fishery. A conſiderable number of boats and ſchooners are employed in the cod fiſhery. The boats take the fiſh about the iles of ſhoals, within two or three leagues of Portſmouth. The fiſh taken in February and March is cured with little ſalt, and being kept alternately above and below ground, becomes mellow and of a red color. This is called dumb fiſh, and is of the firſt quality. The ſchooners fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland, and the fiſh taken, is ſent to Spain and the Weſt-Indies.

Of the Ports of Export. New-Hampſhire has not more than eighteen miles of ſea-coaſt, and no port on the coaſt

except Portsmouth, which is a port of entry, and from this is exported a considerable part of the produce of the state. But by means of the situation of the state, no small portion of commodities is exported by other channels. The lumber that passes down the Merrimac, goes to Newburyport—a part of the trade of the western towns is by the Connecticut to Hartford and New-York—while the northern towns more easily communicate with the seaports in Maine, than with Portsmouth.

Of the value of its Exports. The exports from New-Hampshire for several years after the national government was established, fell short of two hundred thousand dollars a year; in the year 1800, their value rose nearly to four hundred and thirty-two thousand dollars. But a great part of the produce of this state is shipped from ports in other states.

Of Manufactures. The principal manufactures are those of coarse cloths in private families; but not sufficient for the inhabitants. Pot and pearl ashes, iron, leather, saddles, shoes, potters' ware, and a few other articles, are also manufactured.

Of the state of Learning. An old law of the colony directed every town, containing one hundred families, to provide a grammar school; in which also was to be taught reading, writing and arithmetic. This law was not well executed. Since the revolution, a law of the state has directed the maintenance of schools in the several towns under certain penalties. There are also social libraries in some towns; and news-papers circulate in almost all parts of the state.

Of the Academies. At Exeter an academy, founded by John Phillips Esq. and called after his name, was incorporated in 1781. At Atkinson, an academy, founded by Nathaniel Peabody Esq, was incorporated in 1790.—Academies are also founded at Amherst, Charlestown and Concord.

Of Dartmouth College. At Hanover, in Grafton county, is a college founded by Doctor Wheelock in 1769, with a special view to the instruction of young Indians.

Although this object has in a great measure failed; the institution is prosperous and highly useful. The number of students is seldom less than one hundred and fifty; its funds consisting of new lands are increasing in value; its library and apparatus are tolerably complete; its situation is pleasant and advantageous. It takes its name from a principal benefactor, the Earl of Dartmouth.

Of the Government of New-Hampshire. The constitution lodges the power of making laws in a *General Court*, consisting of a senate and a house of representatives, the concurrence of which is necessary to a law. The senate consists of thirteen persons, chosen in certain districts by the freemen or electors. To qualify a man for a senator he must be possessed of a freehold of the value of six hundred and sixty-seven dollars, he must be thirty years of age, an inhabitant of the district for which he is chosen, and must have been an inhabitant of the state for seven years preceding.

Of the Representatives. Every town containing one hundred and fifty ratable males, of twenty one years of age, may send a deputy to the general court. Three hundred additional ratable males entitle a town to an additional representative. A representative must have estate in the district to the value of three hundred and thirty-four dollars, one half of which must be freehold. He must have been two years an inhabitant of the state, and when chosen, must be an inhabitant of the town or district for which he is elected.

Of the Electors. All the male inhabitants in the state of twenty-one years old and upwards, excepting paupers and persons excused from paying taxes at their own request, have a right to vote for senators and representatives. If the electors do not give a majority of votes to any one person for senator, the two houses of the legislature, by joint ballot, elect one of the two who have the greatest number of votes.

Of the Executive Power. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, chosen annually in March by the electors; but if no person has a majority of votes, the

two houſes elect one of the two, who have the higheſt number. To be a qualified candidate for governor, a man muſt have been an inhabitant of the ſtate ſeven years; he muſt be thirty years of age, and poſſeſs an eſtate of the value of ſixteen hundred and ſixty-ſeven dollars, one half of which muſt be freehold.

Of the Council. To aſſiſt and adviſe the governor in his office, a council is inſtituted, conſiſting of five members, one in each county, annually choſen, by the electors; and in caſe no choice is made by the people, the defect is ſupplied by the two houſes from the two perſons who have the higheſt number of votes. The qualifications of a councillor, are the ſame as for governor, except that a councillor muſt have real eſtate to the amount of a thouſand dollars only.

Of the Powers of the Executive. All bills which paſs the two houſes muſt be preſented to the governor; if he ſigns them, they become laws; if not, he returns them, with his objections—if they are then paſſed by two thirds of the members of both houſes, they become laws; otherwiſe, they do not. The governor and council appoint the judges of courts, ſheriffs, regiſters of probate and the attorney general. The governor and council have a negative on each other.

Of the Powers of the Governor. The governor is commander in chief of the army, navy and militia, and has power to pardon offenſes after conviction, except in caſes of impeachment. He can prorogue the general court in its receſs, for a time not exceeding ſeven months, and during the ſeſſion, he can adjourn or prorogue it, at the requeſt of the two houſes. He can alſo ſummon the general court on ſpecial occaſions. In caſe of the death or abſence of the governor, the preſident of the ſenate adminiſters the government, till the next election ſhall ſupply the vacancy, there being no lieutenant governor.

Of the Militia. The militia of New-Hampſhire conſiſts of all able bodied men, from ſixteen to forty years of age, with the exception of civil officers, clergymen, quakers, inſtructors and ſtudents in ſeminaries of learning.

physicians and surgeons, ship masters, ferrymen, millers and a few others. The regiments are twenty-seven, and the effective men, about thirty thousand. The field officers are appointed by the governor and council, the captains and subalterns are nominated by the field officers, and appointed by the governor; the non-commissioned officers, by the captains and subalterns.

Of the Secretary and other Officers. The secretary of the state, treasurer, and commissary-general, are chosen by joint ballot of the senate and representatives. The county treasurers, and registers of deeds are chosen by the freemen of the respective counties. The judges of courts hold their offices during good behaviour, except that they cannot remain in office after seventy years of age.

Of the Religious Denominations. The chief part of the inhabitants are congregationalists, episcopalians, presbyterians, baptists, and quakers; of which the first are the most numerous. In Portsmouth is also a society of universalists, and another of sandemanians. All persuasions and modes of worship are protected by law, without preference. The congregation elect and maintain their own ministers, and no person can be compelled to contribute to the support of those of another denomination.

Of Taxation. Taxes are laid upon polls and property, the several species of which are rated at a certain value, fixed by law. In April annually, an invoice of the polls and ratable property of each town is taken by persons appointed for the purpose, and taxes are laid upon each town in proportion to the amount of this invoice, and upon each man according to his part of it.

Of the Authority of Towns. Every town is a corporation, empowered to choose its officers, make regulations and lay taxes for the support of ministers, schools, bridges, highways and the poor. The general concerns of the town are under the direction of certain persons chosen for the purpose, and called *Selectmen.*

VERMONT.

Of the Situation of Vermont. The state of Vermont lies on the west side of the Connecticut, between forty-two degrees, forty-four minutes, and forty-five degrees, of north latitude: and between seventy-one degrees, thirty-two minutes, and seventy-three degrees, twenty-five minutes, of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. The east limit of Vermont is the western side of the Connecticut—the south boundary is the north line of Massachusetts—the west line divides Pownal, Bennington and some other towns from New-York; then runs down Poultney river to East Bay, then along the middle of that bay, and lake Champlain to Canada, which begins in the forty-fifth degree of latitude—and that degree constitutes the north boundary.

Of the Extent. The length of Vermont from north to south, is one hundred and fifty-seven miles; the bredth on the south, is forty-one miles, and on the north, ninety miles, the mean or average bredth being about sixty-five miles. The contents of the state are nearly ten thousand two hundred and thirty-seven square miles; or six millions and a half of acres. It is probable that water covers about one hundred and sixty thousand acres.

Of the natural Division of the State. The state of Vermont is divided by a range of mountains running nearly north and south, called, from their appearance, *green* mountains, from which the state takes its name. The base of these elevations is about fifteen miles in bredth; and they are intersected, in many places with valleys.

Of the Rivers in the Western part of the State. The principal streams in Vermont, are Onion River, or Winooski, which runs north-westerly seventy-five miles, and after washing a fertile country, enters the lake near Burlington—Otter Creek, which waters the western district of the state for ninety miles, and falls into the lake at Ferrisburg—the Lamoil, a fine smooth stream of seventy-*five miles* in length, which falls into the lake five miles

north of Onion River, the Miſſiſko, of the ſame ſize, which winds acroſs the north line of the ſtate, and falls into the lake in Highgate.

Of the Rivers in the eaſtern part of the State. Weſt river riſes near the head of Otter Creek in Bromley, and running ſouth-eaſt about thirty-ſeven miles, enters the Connecticut at Brattleborough. White river, after a courſe of fifty miles, falls into the Connecticut at Hartford.—Poſoomſuck, riſes in a pond in Weſtmore, and after a courſe of forty-five miles, enters the Connecticut in Barnet. The Connecticut which waſhes the whole eaſtern ſide of Vermont, is one of the fineſt rivers in the eaſtern ſtates.

Of the Lakes. The lake Champlain waſhes a large part of the weſtern ſide of Vermont furniſhing navigable water into Canada. Memfremagog, on the north line of Vermont is about forty miles in length and two or three in bredth. It is chiefly within the limits of Canada and communicates with the St. Lawrence by the river St. Francis.

Of the Counties. Vermont is divided into eleven counties—On the weſt, Bennington, Rutland, Addiſon, Chittenden. On the north, Franklin and Orleans; and on the Connecticut, Windham, Windſor, Orange, Caledonia, and Eſſex. The ſtate is further divided into townſhips, of which there are two hundred and fifty.

Of the Population. In the year 1771, the inhabitants of Vermont amounted to about ſeven thouſand. In 1792 a cenſus was taken and the number exceeded eighty-five thouſand. In the year 1800, the number had increaſed to one hundred and fifty-four thouſand. The people are moſtly Emigrants from the other New-England ſtates or their deſcendants; the largeſt portion of them from Connecticut.

Of the Chief Towns. Bennington, a ſhire town of the county, on the ſouth-weſtern part of the ſtate, and ſettled in 1764, is the oldeſt town. It is finely ſituated upon elevated ground, contains many handſome private buildings, a church, ſtate-houſe, and jail, and in 1800, two thouſand

two hundred and fifty inhabitants. It is about forty miles north-east of Albany, and celebrated for a victory over the British troops in August 1777.

Of Manchester. Manchester, a shire town also in Bennington county, is situated pleasantly on elevated ground, twenty-two miles north of Bennington. It contains a number of handsome buildings and in 1800, fourteen hundred inhabitants.

Of Rutland. Rutland, the shire town of Rutland county, and one of the seats of government, lies on Otter Creek, fifty-seven miles north of Bennington. It contains a church, a state-house and in 1800, two thousand, one hundred and thirty inhabitants.

Of Windsor. Windsor, the shire town of Windsor county, and one of the seats of the government, is one of the most considerable towns in the state. It lies on the Connecticut, about one hundred and forty miles north of Hartford in Connecticut. It contains many elegant houses, and in 1800, two thousand and two hundred inhabitants. Over the Connecticut at this place, is a handsome bridge, connecting the town with Cornish.

Of other considerable Towns. There are many handsome and thriving town in this state, as Westminster, Newfane, Brattleborough, Newbury, Woodstock, Middlebury, Burlington, Vergennes and others. Middlebury and Vergennes on Otter Creek, are furnished by the falls, with excellent mill-seats—as is Burlington by falls on Onion River. Burlington is situated on a beautiful bay of Lake Champlain, which forms a crescent at the foot of the town, and the town has a fine view of the lake.

Of the Employments of the People. The principal occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture. The lands in the state are in general very rich, and covered with forests of heavy wood. In all new settlements, the first object is to clear the land of wood, which is done by girdling, or falling the trees, and burning them with the leaves and dry branches. No sooner is the land in Vermont cleared, than

it produces great crops of wheat, maiz, flax, oats and other useful articles.

Of the Trade of Vermont. The course of trade follows the course of the rivers and the lake. On the east side of the mountains, goods are exported and imported chiefly by means of the Connecticut; and of course, the connections in business are with Hartford and New-York. The north-eastern parts, however, communicate more easily with Boston, Portsmouth, Kennebeck or some eastern port. On the west of the mountains the trade is with Troy, Albany, or other towns on the Hudson, and by that river with New-York; or to the north with Canada by means of lake Champlain and its outlet.

Of the Exports. The chief articles exported are pot and pearl ashes, wheat and other grain, bar iron, nails, beef, pork, cattle, horses, lumber and peltry; with some flax and maple sugar. As all the commodities exported from Vermont are transported through other states, except what pass to Canada, the amount of their value cannot be known, being included in the returns of exports from the ports where the articles are shipped. Thus a large part of the exports from New-York is the produce of Connecticut, New-Jersey and Vermont.

Of the Manufactures. The manufactures of Vermont are chiefly of the domestic kind, furnishing the inhabitants with coarse woollens and linens for the greater part of their necessary clothing. The sheep in Vermont are good and flax is raised to great advantage. Iron is found to be abundant in the state, and large quantities are manufactured into nails. Many furnaces and forges are established in the western counties. The burning of wood, in clearing new lands, supplies vast quantities of ashes, for the manufacture of pot and pearl ashes. Maple sugar is made in large quantities.

Of the state of Learning. Learning receives from the people of Vermont all the encouragement that can be *expected from* an agricultural people in a new settlement. *Schools for* common education are planted in every part

of the state; and two colleges are established, one at Middlebury; the other at Burlington, in which are taught classical learning, and the higher branches of mathematics, philosophy, and other sciences.

Of the state of Religion. In the grants of townships by the legislature of Vermont, two rights of land have been reserved for the support of the clergy—one for a perpetual parsonage—another for the first settled minister in the town, of whatever denomination. In many of the oldest towns, there are settled ministers; in others, occasional preaching by delegates from societies of the clergy in the other states. The inhabitants are chiefly of the congregational persuasion, or baptists: but perfect freedom in religion is recognized by the constitution; and in this, as in other states, are found people of almost every denomination.

Of the Government of Vermont. The constitution of Vermont, originally formed in 1778, revised in 1786, and again 1792, lodges the legislative power, in a house of representatives, consisting of a deputy from each town, chosen annually on the first Tuesday of September, and stiled, the *General Assembly.* The annual meeting of the legislature is on the second Thursday of October.

Of the Executive Power. The power of administering the laws is vested in a governor, or in his absence, a lieutenant governor, and a council of twelve men, chosen annually by the freemen; or if no person has a majority of votes, the governor is chosen by the council and general assembly. No property is necessary to qualify a man for any legislative or executive office.

Of the Freemen. Every man of full age, and of quiet behavior, after a years residence in the state is entitled to be a freeman, and to vote for public officers. But two years residence is requisite to qualify a man for the Office of governor, lieutenant governor, treasurer, councillor or representative.

Of the mode of enacting Laws. All bills which originate in the assembly, are to be laid before the governor and

council, and if approved become laws—but if the governor and council propose amendments, as they may, and the amendments are not agreed to by the assembly, the governor and council may suspend the passing of the bills, until the next session. If a bill is not returned in five days, it becomes a law.

Of Appointments and Courts. Judges of the several courts, sheriffs, justices of the peace, and general officers, are appointed by the general assembly, in conjunction with the governor and council; but officers are commissioned by the governor. The supreme court consists of three judges, and is held in each county. Each county has also a court, consisting of three judges. Justices of the peace have power to try civil actions, where the demand does not exceed thirteen dollars and a third—and criminal actions, where the fine or forfeiture does not exceed six dollars and two thirds. They can also punish with stripes not exceeding ten.

Of Taxation and Expenses. The property of the inhabitants is valued, agreeable to certain rules established by law; and on that property is apportioned every public tax. The expenses of government in Vermont amount to about ten thousand dollars a year; and the state is not incumbered with debt.

Of the Militia. The military force of Vermont consists of every able bodied man from sixteen years old to forty-five; excepting persons exempted on account of their employments. In 1792, there were twenty regiments of infantry, divided into four divisions, eight brigades, fifteen companies of cavalry, and six of artillery, composing a body of eighteen thousand and five hundred men.

Maine in Massachusetts.

Of the Divisions of Massachusetts. The state of Massachusetts is separated into two divisions, by means of New-Hampshire. That part which lies north and east of New-Hampshire is called the district of Maine, and forms the north-eastern extremity of the United States.

Of the Situation and Bounds of Maine. Maine lies between the forty-third and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude; and between the sixty-fifth and seventy-first degrees of west longitude. On the west, Maine has for a boundary, the Pascataway and New-Hampshire; on the north, Canada; on the east, the river Scooduc and New-Brunswic; and on the south, the Atlantic.

Of the Extent. The length of Maine on the sea coast is two hundred and forty miles; and its bredth, on an average, is one hundred and thirty. This extent of surface gives thirty-one thousand and two hundred square miles, and almost twenty millions of acres. What portion is covered with water is not yet known.

Of the Face of the Country. Maine is generally hilly, but not mountainous. The land near the sea coast is stony and barren; but the interior land produces good crops of wheat, rye, barley, oats, maiz, hemp, flax, and esculent roots. On the west is a mountain called Agamenticus, within a few miles of the sea; a useful landmark for seamen. On the north a range of mountains divides this district from Canada.

Of the Rivers and Lakes. Maine is well watered with large and small streams, the chief of which are Saco, Kennebec, Penobscot, Androscoggin, and Scooduc; all which furnish navigable and boatable water into the interior of the country. The chief lakes are Moosehead, Sebacook or Sebago, Scooduc and Umbagog.

Of the Bays and Islands. No part of the American coast is more indented with bays and inlets, than the coast of Maine. The principal of these are Casco, Pemaquid, Penobscot, Passamaquoddy, and Machias. Numerous islands are scattered along the coast, at a small distance from the land, protecting the harbors from the violence of the waves, and rendering navigation safe.

Of the Counties, Towns, and Population. The counties in Maine are six—on the west adjoining to Pascataway, lies York—next to which are Cumberland and Kennebec—then Lincoln—east of which is Hancock, and last of all

Washington. These are divided into two hundred and twenty townships. The inhabitants of the district in 1750, were less than ten thousand—in 1790, they were ninety-six thousand; and in 1800, almost one hundred and fifty-two thousand.

Of the Chief Towns. York, a considerable town, nine miles from Portsmouth, is situated on a river of the same name, has a good harbor, and contained, by the census of the year 1800, two thousand eight hundred inhabitants. Portland, on Casco Bay, fifty-five miles from Portsmouth, was built on the ruins of Falmouth, which was burnt by the British in 1775. It is a place of considerable trade, has a bank, and contained in 1800, three thousand seven hundred inhabitants. There are many other considerable towns, as Wells, Pownalborough, Biddeford, Wiscasset and others.

Of the Trade. The principal article of export is lumber. Vast quantities of pine boards, shingles, joists, masts, spars, and the like, are transported to the neighboring states, and to Europe and the West-Indies. Pine, hemlock, spruce, beech and maple abound in the country; and from that district Boston is chiefly supplied with wood. Fish also is a considerable article of export.

Of the Agriculture. The first settlements in Maine were on the rivers and bays, along the sea shore, where the land is barren; and the inhabitants, finding a trade in lumber the most profitable business, neglected the cultivation of the earth, and exchanged their lumber for grain, which they imported from the middle and southern states. But the lumber trade being suspended by the revolutionary war, the inhabitants betook themselves to agriculture, and pushing their settlements to the interior of the district, found the land capable of supplying them with provisions.

Of Manufactures and Fisheries. The manufactures are confined mostly to a few coarse cloths. The fisheries are prosecuted with ease and success. The abundance of cod, shad *and salmon*, in the bays and rivers, with the nearness

of that district to the grand bank, render the fisheries a considerable and profitable business.

Of the State of Learning and Religion. The laws of Massachusetts direct that a school shall be kept in each town, and lands are retained, as public lots, for the support of schools and the gospel ministry. These beneficial institutions are enjoyed in the old settlements; but a great part of the district, being lately settled, is not well supplied with schools.

Massachusetts.

Of the Situation of Massachusetts. That part of Massachusetts which lies south of New-Hampshire, extends from the latitude of forty-one degrees thirteen minutes, to forty-three degrees fifty-two minutes north; and from seventy to seventy-three degrees thirty-eight minutes, west longitude.

Of its Name and Bounds. Massachusetts is the name given to the bay between Cape Cod and Cape Ann, by the Indian natives, a tribe of whom was called by the same name. The state has the Atlantic ocean on the east, New-Hampshire and Vermont on the north, New-York on the west, and Connecticut, Rhode-Island, and the sea on the south.

Of the Extent. The general length of the state, east and west, from the Atlantic to the New-York line, is about one hundred and twenty miles; but from the eastern point of Cape Cod, it is one hundred and ninety miles. The general bredth from north to south, is fifty miles; but at the east end of the state, about double that distance.—This part of the state contains about five millions of acres.

Of the Counties, Towns, and Population. Massachusetts, exclusive of Maine, contains twelve counties, which are divided into two hundred and seventy-nine townships, of a convenient extent. The inhabitants in 1790, amounted *nearly to three* hundred and eighty thousand—in 1800, *the number* had increased to four hundred and twenty-

five thouſand—and the whole number of the ſtate, including Maine, to five hundred and ſeventy-five thouſand.

Chief Towns. Boſton. The metropolis of Maſſachuſetts is Boſton, ſo called after a town of the ſame name in England. It is ſituated on a peninſula, which was called by the Indians Shawmut, which is a mile and three quarters in length, and from one quarter of a mile to a mile in bredth. The neck, connecting it with the land in Roxbury, is a mile in length.

Of the Houſes and Inhabitants. The houſes in Boſton amount to two thouſand and five hundred. They are chiefly of wood, but many of them of brick, and generally three ſtories high. In the ſouth and weſt part of the town, many of them have neat and elegant gardens attached to them. The inhabitants in 1791, were eighteen thouſand—in 1800, they were nearly twenty-five thouſand.

Of the Streets. There are in Boſton, ninety-ſeven ſtreets, thirty-ſix lanes, twenty-ſix alleys, and a few courts and ſquares. The ſtreets are moſtly narrow or winding; a few of them are broad and ſtrait. They are paved with beach ſtone, which are large and ſubject to be forced out of their places by the wheels of loaded carts; for which reaſon, the pavements are uſually broken and uneven.

Of the State-Houſe. The ſtate-houſe on Beacon Hill is a very large and elegant building, finiſhed with great taſte. The dome is one hundred feet in diameter; it ſerves as a land-mark to mariners, and on the top is a very extenſive, and the richeſt proſpect imaginable. The harbor and its iſlands, the town of Boſton, and eſpecially the neighboring towns, and villages, ſpread along the ſhore around the bay and the rivers, in the form of an amphitheatre, adorned with ſpires, churches, colleges and private dwellings, with the verdure of luxurient farms and gardens, preſent an animating view of the induſtry, eaſe and affluence of the inhabitants.

Of the Fanueil Hall. On market ſquare ſtands Fanueil *Hall, built by a gentleman of that name. This is a large building; the firſt floor is occupied as a fleſh market, and*

the second floor contains a large hall for town meetings, and other public purposes, and a room for the selectmen.

Of the Alms-House, &c. The new alms-house stands near the water, in the north-west part of the town. It contains sixty rooms of forty feet square; is built of brick, and is a handsome building. The old state-house in State-street is a large building; and is occupied with offices.

Of the Churches. The buildings for religious societies are nineteen—nine for congregationalists—three for episcopalians—two for baptists; and the others for societies of different persuasions. Many of these churches are large and elegant buildings.

Of the Theatre and other Public Buildings. The theatre in Federal-street, is a large, handsome building of brick. The other public buildings are, a court-house, the province-house for the governor, a stone jail, a bridewell, and work-house, a powder-house, and concert-hall.

Of the Market. No part of America can boast of more excellent markets, than Boston. Flesh, fish, poultry, and vegetables are in the greatest abundance. But flour is imported from New-York, Philadelphia or Baltimore. Wood, the chief fuel, is brought from Penobscot, Kennebec, or other ports in Maine.

Of the Wharves and Keys. There are eighty wharves and keys for loading and unloading ships. The long wharf is seventeen hundred and forty-three feet in length. On the north side, is a range of stores; and near the middle, a convenient key, with a well of fresh water for supplying the shipping.

Of the Bridges. Three magnificent toll bridges connect Boston with the towns on the main land. Charles river bridge, built in 1785 and 6, is fifteen hundred feet in length and forty-three in bredth. It stands on seventy-five piers, and has a foot walk on each side. West-Boston bridge, erected in 1792 and 3, stands on one hundred and eighty piers, is three thousand four hundred and eighty

feet in length, and forty in width. At the west end is a cross-way over a marsh, nearly as long as the bridge. Another bridge connects Boston with Dorchester point, now South Boston.

Of the Column. On the top of beacon hill, in the rear of the state-house, stands a column of the doric order, built of brick and stone, and sixty feet high. It is incrusted with a cement; on the top is a figure of an eagle in wood supporting the American arms. On this column are inscribed the dates of some of the principal events of the revolution.

Of Franklin Place. This is a range of handsome brick buildings in the form of a crescent. The open space in front is one hundred feet wide in the center, and fifty at the ends, with a grass plat in the middle, ornamented with trees and enclosed with rails.

Of the Mall and Common. The mall is a public walk, on the south-west side of the town in front of the state-house fourteen hundred feet long, and bordered with rows of trees. On the west, this walk is open to the common, which is a pasture belonging to the town. The beauty of the scenery there displayed, the shade of the trees, and cool westerly breezes, render the walk very inviting in sultry weather.

Of the sufferings of Boston by Fire. No town has been more frequently damaged by fire than Boston. Besides many fires of less note, the fire of 1679 destroyed one hundred and fifty buildings, and several vessels. In 1711, all the houses in Cornhill, with many in state-street were destroyed. The conflagration in 1760 was still more dreadful, consuming three hundred and fifty houses and stores. In 1787, one hundred buildings were laid in ruins, and in 1794, ninety-six. In the period of one hundred and fifteen years, the buildings burnt amounted almost to one thousand.

Of the Societies in Boston. There are in Boston nine societies instituted for charitable purposes—one for the promotion of the arts and sciences—one for historical researches—one for agriculture—one for propagating the

gospel on the frontiers—besides a medical society, the cincinnati, fire clubs and some others.

Of the Banks and Insurance Companies. In Boston, are four banks, the Massachusetts Bank, instituted in 1784; the Union Bank, incorporated in 1792; a branch of the Bank of the United States; and Boston Bank instituted in 1802. There are three incorporated companies for insuring property against losses at sea and by fire.

Of the Manufactures. The chief manufactures of the town are, those of loaf sugar, chocolate, candles, soap, rum, cordage, calico printing, stained paper, stone ware, hats, combs, books, twine, wool cards, furniture and utensils of various kinds. There were formerly thirty distileries of rum in the town.

Of its settlement. Boston was first settled by the English in 1630. A large body of adventurers, under governor Winthrop, arrived at Salem in June 1630. Some of these people began a plantation at Watertown, others sat down at Charlestown; but not liking the situation they crossed the river, and began a town on the peninsula, in November of that year. Among these were governor Winthrop, deputy governor Dudley, and Mr. Wilson, their minister.

Of Salem. Thirteen miles north-easterly from Boston, lies Salem, the town of the second consideration in the state. It is situated on a point of land, formed by a river on the north, and a small bay on the south. It contained in 1800, nine thousand four hundred and sixty inhabitants, who are remarkable for their industry, and commercial enterprise, and among the richest in the state. This is a seat of the courts in the county of Essex; it has many elegant public and private buildings, and two banks. A bridge of fifteen hundred feet long, connects this town with Beverly. The Indian name of the place and river was Naumkeag, or Nahumkeak. It was settled in 1628 by a party of adventurers under governor Endicott.

Of Newburyport. Newburyport, the third town in Massachusetts in commercial consequence, lies on the south

ſide of the Merrimac, about three miles from the ſea, and forty miles from Boſton. This is alſo a ſeat of the courts in Eſſex county, and contained in 1800, ſix thouſand inhabitants, who are eminent for their commercial ſpirit. This town is diſtinguiſhed for ſhip building, and a remarkable manufactory of nails. It has a bank, and many public ſchools. Adjoining to it is Newbury, a large town which is connected with Saliſbury, by a very curious bridge over the Merrimac, of one thouſand and thirty feet in length.

Of other conſiderable Towns. To the ſouthward of Boſton is Plymouth, forty miles diſtant, the ſhire town of the county of that name, and the oldeſt town in New-England. The inhabitants have placed in the center of the town, the rock on which our anceſtors firſt diſembarked in 1620. About thirty-ſix miles nearly ſouth of Boſton is Taunton, a pleaſant town, the ſeat of the courts in Briſtol county, on a ſmall navigable river. Sixty miles ſouth of Boſton is New-Bedford, a thriving town, on Acuſhnet river and bay. This town has grown out of the profits of the whale fiſhery, and has a bank.

Of the Towns in the Weſtern Parts. Worceſter, the ſhire town of the large county of the ſame name, is a handſome town, forty-eight miles weſt of Boſton, ſituated in a valley, and has a bank. On the Connecticut ſtand ſeveral handſome towns, among which are Springfield and Northampton, the ſeats of the courts in Hampſhire county, ninety-ſeven miles weſt of Boſton. In Berſhire county, and contiguous to the ſtate of New-York, are ſeveral neat and thriving towns, as Stockbridge, Pittsfield, Williamſtown, and the ſhire towns Great-Barrington and Lenox, In Northampton is a bank, and at Springfield and Greenfield there are bridges over the Connecticut.

Of the Rivers. The Connecticut runs through Maſſachuſetts, in the county of Hampſhire; watering great tracts of excellent meadow. The Merrimac runs through the *north-eaſt* corner of the ſtate, and forms a good harbor at Newburyport, though of difficult entrance. Charles river is boatable from Boſton to Watertown, and furniſhes

good meadow and many mill seats, between that town and its source, which is a pond on the borders of Hopkinton. Below Charlestown it unites with the Mistic and forms a bay north of Boston. The Mistic is navigable to Medford, about four miles.

Of the Rivers in the Western Counties. From some ponds in Worcester county, springs the Chickopy, a rapid stream which winds through the hilly country, in a westerly direction, and falls into the Connecticut in Springfield — Miller's river proceeding from ponds in Rindge and other towns, falls into the Connecticut between Northfield and Montague, Deerfield river, rises in Bennington county, in Vermont, and unites with the Connecticut between Deerfield and Greenfield. The Agawom rises in Berkshire county and falls into the Connecticut, in West-Springfield. The Housatonuc has its sources in Bershire county, and waters Stockbridge, Barrington and Sheffield, then penetrating Connecticut, falls into the sound at Stratford.

Of the Mountains. In this part of Massachusetts there are no very lofty mountains. The principal are on the ridge between the Connecticut and the Hudson, in the county of Berkshire which is a continuation of the green mountains in Vermont. The hills in Worcester and Hampshire counties are a continuation of the mountains between the Connecticut and the Merrimac.

Of the Bays. The great bay of Massachusetts is included between Cape Ann on the north, and Cape Cod on the south. Within this, are many smaller bays, which furnish safe and navigable water for many well peopled towns. On the south side of this bay, Barnstable bay penetrates into the peninsula of Cape Cod, and approaches within five miles of Buzzard's Bay, on the south side of the Peninsula.

Of the Islands in the Bay. The bay of Massachusetts contains forty eight Islands, many of which are small barren rocks. Fifteen of them are of considerable size, and valuable. On one of them about two miles from Boston stands Fort Independence, formerly Castle William, a

ſtrong fort, near the ſhip channel, capable of annoying an enemy. In the caſtle, is a priſon for the confinement of convicts, condemned to labor.

Of Cape Cod. The peninſula, called Cape Cod, extends in the form of an elbow, from the main land at Sandwich, and is ſixty-five miles in length. Its bredth varies from nine to three miles. It has Maſſachuſetts bay on the north and Buzzards bay on the ſouth. A canal through the peninſula, in the town of Barnſtable, has been contemplated. This peninſula is divided into eleven townſhips, and forms the county of Barnſtable, containing nineteen thouſand inhabitants.

Of the Elizabeth Iſlands. On the ſouth-eaſt of Buzzards bay, is extended from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, a range of ſixteen ſmall iſlands called Elizabeth iſlands, the chief of which, are Nauſhan, Naſhawena, Nenimiſſet, Paſquy, Pinequeſe, and Cattahunk. The latter iſland is on the ſouth-weſtern extremity, and is the ſpot on which Goſnold attempted a ſettlement in 1602. Theſe iſlands are remarkably fertile; and theſe, with Martha's Vinyard and the neighboring ſmall iſles, conſtitute Dukes county, containing three thouſand one hundred inhabitants.

Of Martha's Vinyard. This iſland has been ſometimes called Martin's Vinyard, from Martin Pring, one of its early viſitors. The Indian name was *Capawock.* It lies about ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Elizabeth iles; is twenty-one miles long, and ſix broad—the land fertile and well inhabited. The name Martha's Vinyard was originally given by Goſnold to a ſmall iſland ſouth of the preſent Martha's Vinyard, now called Noman's land, as it was uninhabited, the name was afterwards transferred to the larger iſland. Both of them abounded with vines.

Of Nantucket. A few leagues eaſtward of Martha's Vinyard, and ſouth of Cape Cod, lies Nantucket, an iſland of fifteen miles in length, and from four to eleven in bredth. Its ſoil is moſtly ſand, but in ſome parts rich loam. It is a county and contains five thouſand ſix hundred inhabitants. The neighboring ſea abounds with

valuable fish of various kinds, and the inhabitants have been remarkable for their enterprize in the whale fishery. On this Island is a bank with a small capital.

Of the Manufactures. Besides domestic manufactures of coarse cloths, duck has been made in large quantities in Boston and Northampton. By means of very ingenious machinery, of American invention, wool cards are made for exportation in great numbers. The manufacture of women's shoes, at Lynn is distinguished; as well as those of nails, nail rods, bar and sheet iron, spades and shovels at Taunton and Bridgewater. To these may be added the manufacture of pot and pearl ashes, spermaceti and tallow candles, chocolate, hooks and lines for the fisheries, paper hangings, snuff, paper and many other articles.

Of Canals for Lock Navigation. A canal is cut to carry boatable water round the rapids in the Connecticut at Montague called Miller's fall. A like canal is in execution at Hadley, to carry boats by the rapids at that place. The Middlesex canal, connecting the waters of the Merimac with Mistic river, is twenty-three miles in length, and a work of vast utility and expense.

Of the Fisheries. The greatest part of the fisheries of the United States is carried on by the citizens of Massachusetts. The whale fishery is carried on by the people of Nantucket, New-Bedford and Cape Cod—the cod fishery is pursued by the people of Marblehead, Salem, Gloucester, and the inhabitants of Maine.

Of the Commerce. The commerce of Massachusetts extends to all the world. Ship building is a material article of business, and no state owns so much tonnage as Massachusetts. The chief exports are dry fish, oil, lumber, pot and pearl ashes, flax-seed, furs, pickled fish of various sorts, beef, pork, grain, cheese, loaf sugar, candles, soap, cards, shoes, cordage and other naval stores. In the year 1800, the value of the exports rose above the sum of *eleven millions* of dollars.

Of the State of Learning. In Massachusetts the principal institutions for science are the University of Cambridge, and the college at Williamstown. The university of Cambridge was founded in 1638—it is well endowed—is furnished with professors of the several sciences—a large library and apparatus—and contains usually from one hundred and forty to two hundred students. Williams college, in Williamstown, founded in 1793, is in a thriving state. Academies are established in various parts of the state, in which are taught the liberal sciences, as well as the languages. The laws of the state require a school to be kept in every town, having fifty house-holders, and a grammar school in every town having two hundred families. And although the laws are not rigidly obeyed, still most of the children in the state have access to a school.

Of the Constitution. By the constitution of Massachusetts, the legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, denominated the *General Court*, whose annual session is held at Boston, on the last Wednesday in May.

Of the Senate. The senate consists of forty persons, chosen annually in districts formed by the legislature. In case a sufficient number of persons have not a majority of votes, the election is made by the two houses of the general court. In the same manner are vacancies supplied. The qualifications of a senator are, a freehold estate of the value of one thousand dollars; or personal estate to the value of two thousand dollars—five years inhabitancy in the state, and inhabitancy in the district at the time of his election.

Of the House of Representatives. Each town in the state, containing one hundred and fifty ratable polls, elects one representative, and for every two hundred and twenty-five additional polls, an additional representative. The election is annually in May, and for one year. The qualifications of a representative are, one year's inhabitancy in the town, and a freehold of the value of three hundred

and thirty-three dollars, and one third, or any ratable eſtate to double that amount.

Of the Executive. The power of executing the laws, is lodged in a governor, who is choſen annually on the firſt Monday in April. His qualifications are ſeven years inhabitancy in the ſtate, a freehold of the value of three thouſand, three hundred, thirty-three dollars and a third, and profeſſion of the Chriſtian religion. If no perſon has a majority of votes, the houſe of repreſentatives by ballot elect two out of the four perſons having the moſt votes, and one of the two is by ballot elected by the ſenate to be governor.

Of the Lieutenant-Governor. A lieutenant-governor is elected on the ſame day as the governor, and his qualifications muſt be the ſame. In caſe no choice is made by the citizens, the election is made by the two houſes, as in caſe of the governor. The lieutenant-governor ſupplies the place of governor when vacant by death, or abſence, and is a member of the council.

Of the Council. To adviſe the governor in the executive part of government, a council is inſtituted, conſiſting of nine perſons, beſides the lieutenant-governor. Theſe are choſen annually by the joint ballot of both houſes of the general court, from among the perſons returned for counſellors and ſenators, or in caſe the number cannot be completed from among them, the election is made from the people at large; but not more than two can be choſen from one diſtrict.

Of the Officers of Government and Judiciary. The ſecretary, treaſurer, and notaries public, are choſen by the joint ballot of the two houſes. The judges of courts, juſtices of the peace, attorney-general, ſheriffs, coroners, and regiſters of probate are nominated by the governor and appointed by and with the advice and conſent of the council. Judicial officers hold their places during good behavior, except juſtices of the peace, who remain in office *ſeven years* only under one commiſſion, but may be re-appointed.

Of the Militia. The militia of the state consists of all able bodied men between sixteen and forty years of age, besides the alarm list, composed of men between forty and sixty. These are organized into ten divisions, twenty-two brigades, and eighty-three regiments; besides forty-eight troops of horse and thirty-six companies of artillery—composing a body of about sixty thousand men.

Of Military Officers. Captains and subalterns are chosen by the soldiers of the company—regimental field officers are chosen by the captains and subalterns of the regiment—brigadiers, by the field officers of the brigade—major-generals are appointed by the general court, and commissioned by the governor.

Of the Religion of the State. The congregationalists are the most numerous denomination of Christians; but there are many churches of other persuasions. All denominations are protected by law, and the establishment of any one in particular is forbid by the constitution; but it is made the duty of the legislature, to require the people to make provision for the institution of public worship.

Rhode-Island.

Of the Situation of Rhode-Island. The state of Rhode-Island is situated in the forty-second degree of latitude, and the seventy-first degree of west longitude. It is enclosed between Massachusetts on the east and north, and Connecticut on the west, with the Atlantic on the south.

Of its Extent. This state is about forty-five miles in length and thirty in bredth, on an average; containing about thirteen hundred and fifty square miles. This area contains eight hundred and sixty-four thousand acres; but a large portion of it is covered with water.

Of the Face of the State. Rhode-Island contains no mountains; but the northern and western parts are hilly and stony. The state is penetrated by the river or bay, called Narraganset, which is thirty miles in length, embosoming a number of islands, and extending safe navigation for large ships to Providence.

Of the Rivers. In addition to the Narraganſet, this ſtate enjoys the benefit of the Patucket, which furniſhes an excellent ſeat for mills, four miles north-eaſt of Providence, and falls into the Narraganſet, a little below the town. The river which enters the Narraganſent at Providence, is called Providence river, and is formed by ſeveral ſmall branches. A more conſiderable river, called Pawtuxet, formed by ſeveral ſtreams in the weſtern part of the ſtate, unites with the Narraganſet, about four miles below Providence.

Of the Iſlands. On the eaſt ſide of the Narraganſet lies Rhode-Iſland, which gives name to the ſtate. It extends about fourteen miles in length from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and is three miles in breadth. Weſt of this, lies Conannicut, a narrow iſland of ſeven miles in length. To the north lies Prudence, of leſs magnitude. Theſe are the largeſt iſlands, and they are all fertile. To the ſouth-weſt of theſe and in the open ſea, is Block-Iſland, about ten miles long and four broad—diſtant from Newport twenty-one miles.

Of the Climate and Soil. Rhode-Iſland has a climate as temperate and healthful, as any part of New-England; although the ſea coaſt is, in the ſpring, ſubject to fogs. The north-weſtern towns are ſtony and barren, but the iſlands, and the towns bordering on the bay and the ſea, are unuſually fertile, producing all the roots, fruits and grain, common to the climate.

Of the Counties and Towns. This ſtate is divided into five counties—Newport on the ſouth, Providence on the north, Waſhington and Kent on the weſt, and Briſtol in the center, on the eaſt of the bay. Theſe are ſubdivided into thirty townſhips of a convenient ſize.

Of the Population. The number of inhabitants in 1730, was a little ſhort of eighteen thouſand—of which fifteen thouſand three hundred were whites. In 1785 they amounted to almoſt fifty-two thouſand. In 1790, the number was nearly ſixty-nine thouſand. In 1800, ſixty-nine thouſand one hundred and twenty.

Chief Towns. Providence, at the head of navigation, is the principal seat of commerce, and the shire town of the county of that name. It contained in 1790 six thousand and four hundred inhabitants—and in 1800, seven thousand, six hundred. It stands on both sides of Providence river, connected by a bridge of one hundred and sixty feet in length. The principal part of the town, and that first settled, stands on the declivity of a steep hill, facing the west. In this town are two banks and two insurance companies.

Of the Public Buildings. The baptist church is a large edifice, eighty feet square, with a steeple of unusual elegance. The new congregational church is remarkably elegant. The court-house and the college are handsome. These, with several other public buildings, and a number of most elegant private mansions, standing on the hill, are exhibited to uncommon advantage, to a spectator on the west side of the river.

Of Newport. On the west end of Rhode-Island stands Newport, on a gentle declivity facing the west. It contained in 1800 six thousand seven hundred and forty inhabitants. The court-house and the churches, with a number of handsome private dwellings, spread along the elevation of the ground, are seen to great advantage from the harbor. The main street in the town is a mile in length and strait but narrow. The houses are mostly of wood. In this town is a bank and insurance company.

Of the Manufactures. The people of this state make a large proportion of coarse cloths for their own consumption, and some linens for exportation. Great quantities of stone-lime are made in Providence county for exportation. Some progress has been made in the manufacture of cottons. Still more valuable are the manufactures of bar and sheet iron, nail-rods, nails, hard-ware, anchors, cannon, shot, and bells. The foundery at Scituate is distinguished for the fabrication of these articles.

Of the Dairies. Block Island, the towns on the Atlantic shore and some other parts, are celebrated for the quan-

tities and excellence of the cheeſe made and exported. The iſlands furniſh rich paſturage for ſheep, of which great numbers are raiſed; and for cattle, which are numerous and large.

Of the Exports. The principal articles of export are, beef, pork, horſes, cattle, lumber, flax-ſeed, fiſh, cheeſe, butter, lime, barley, ſpirits, with India goods of various kinds. The amount of exports in 1800 was one million, three hundred and twenty-three thouſand dollars.

Of the Trade. Before the revolution, Newport carried on a great trade to Africa; but this was ſuſpended by the revolutionary war, and has been prohibited by the laws of the United States. The trade of the ſtate is principally with the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies; but is not limited to any foreign country. The merchants of Providence carry on a great trade with the Eaſt-Indies.

Of the State of Learning. There is a college at Providence, founded by the baptiſts, containing forty-eight rooms for ſtudents, and eight rooms for public uſes. It has a library of near three thouſand volumes—and an apparatus for experiments in philoſophy. It is furniſhed with a preſident and ſuitable inſtructors for the ſtudents who are uſually about ſixty in number. In the large towns, and in ſome others, there are private ſchools for teaching the common branches of learning.

Of the Conſtitution. By the charter granted to the colony of Rhode-Iſland, in 1663, which has been recognized by the ſtate as the baſis of its government, the powers of legiſlations are lodged in the General Aſſembly, conſiſting of two branches, the houſe of aſſiſtants in which the governor preſides, with a ſingle vote, and a houſe of repreſentatives.

Of the Aſſiſtants. The aſſiſtants are ten in number, and form the upper houſe or council. They are choſen yearly by the freemen. The qualification of freemen, is poſſeſſion of a freehold of the value of one hundred, and thirty-three dollars and a third, or of an annual rent of the value *of ſix dollars* and two thirds.

Of the Representatives. The representatives are seventy in number, and chosen by the freemen half yearly. The regular sessions of the General Assembly, are on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October. The assistants and representatives must be freemen.

Of the Executive. The chief executive power is lodged in a governor, or, in his absence, in a deputy governor. These officers are chosen by the freemen annually, and no qualification is requisite, except that they are freemen, and inhabitants of some corporate town.

Of Courts and Officers. A court of common pleas sits twice a year in each county—the supreme court sits also twice a year in each county, with jurisdiction over the whole state. The judges and officers of the state, are appointed annually by the General Assembly.

Of the state of Religion. By the constitution, all religious sects are equally protected, and none has any pre-eminence. Contracts with clergymen are not binding in law, unless in a society incorporated for the purpose. The principal denominations are baptists, congregationalists, episcopalians, and quakers.

Connecticut.

Of the name of Connecticut. Connecticut is the Indian name of the principal river that runs through the state, and signifies the *long river*. The Dutch called this the *Fresh river*—and both names are very expressive of its remarkable characters.

Of the situation of Connecticut. The state of Connecticut lies in the forty-second degree of latitude, and between seventy-one degrees, twenty minutes and seventy-three degrees, fifteen minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. On the south Connecticut is washed by the waters of the sound, between Long-Island and the main—the western limit is Byram river, and the border of New-York—the northern boundary is the southern line of Massachusetts, and the eastern, is the Paucatuc, and the western border of Rhode-Island.

Of the Extent. The eastern line of Connecticut is about forty-five miles in length; the southern, about one hundred and ten—the western, about seventy-five—and the northern about seventy-two. It contains about four thousand and six hundred square miles, or two million, nine hundred and forty four thousand acres.

Of the Face of the State. From the Connecticut, which runs through the center of the state, the land rises on each side, into hills, but no very large mountains are within the limits of this state. The most elevated land is a range of hills or small mountains, running north and south, through Litchfield county; being a continuation of the green mountains of Vermont.

Of the chief Rivers. In addition to the Connecticut and Housatonuc,* which have been described, the Mohegan river forms the harbor of New-London, and is navigable fourteen miles to Norwich. This river is formed by a small stream, called Norwich river, and by the Shetucket and Quinebaug, which unite three miles above Norwich. The Shetucket arises in the northern part of the state, in Union; and the Quinebaug, in Brimfield in Massachusetts. These streams are shallow, on a stony bottom and not boatable.

Of the Tunxis or Windsor River. The Tunxis has its sources in Brandford in Berkshire county. It enters Connecticut in Colebrook, and winding in a south-easterly direction, through New-Hartford to Farmington, is there joined by the Poquabuc, and turning northward, runs through Simsbury and enters the Connecticut in Windsor. It is not boatable, for any considerable distance.

Of the Quinipaug and Naugatuc. The Quinipaug is a small stream running southward and entering the harbor of New-Haven, one mile east of the state-house. It admits small craft to North-Haven Bridge eight miles, and forms an extensive salt marsh. The Naugatuc rises in

* *A bridge* was erected, in 1803, over the Housatonuc on the main post road, *between Milford and* Stratford. It is two hundred and thirty yards in length.

Litchfield county and unites with the Houſatonuc in Derby.

Of the ſhore of Connecticut. The ſhore of this ſtate is indented with numerous creeks and ſmall bays, which form harbors for coaſters, in every town upon the ſound. Eaſt of the Connecticut, the land is rocky, but every where containing a fertile ſoil. It is no where ſteep, but riſes gradually into gentle hills, which preſent a rich proſpect from the ſound.

Of the Ponds. In Saliſbury, on the weſt border of the ſtate, are two ponds which furniſh mill ſeats. One of them near the center of the town, is three miles in circumference, [illegible] by ſprings, and furniſhes a ſtream for the uſe of the celebrated furnace in that place. In Wincheſter are two ponds, one of them three miles in length, which furniſhes a perpetual ſtream for a forge and ſeveral mills.

Of the diviſion of the State. Connecticut is divided into eight counties, and one hundred and thirteen townſhips. In the center of the ſtate are the counties of Hartford, New-Haven and Middleſex—on the weſt, Fairfield and Litchfield—on the eaſt New-London, Windham and Tolland.

Of the Cities. In the year 1784, five cities were erected in Connecticut, comprehending the moſt populous and commercial parts of the towns of Hartford, New-Haven, New-London, Norwich, and Middletown. Theſe corporations are veſted with powers of government in local concerns. The mayor is choſen by the freemen, and holds his office, during the pleaſure of the General Court. The aldermen, common council, clerk and ſheriffs are annually elected. The city courts have the powers of the county courts.

Of the chief Towns. Hartford, on the weſt bank of the Connecticut, forty miles from the ſea, is a commercial, as well as agricultural town, and a ſeat of the government, where is held the annual election of civil officers in May. The townſhip is ſix miles in length, and five in breadth. It contains three congregational churches, one

epiſcopal; one baptiſt; and a ſmall ſociety of quakers. In 1790, the inhabitants were four thouſand and ninety—in 1800, five thouſand three hundred and fifty. It has a bank and an inſurance company.

Of the City of Hartford. The incorporated part of Hartford is nearly a mile and a half in length, and a mile in bredth. It is penetrated by a ſtream called Little or Mill river, which deſcends from the hills ſix miles weſt of the city, and running for ſome miles on a bottom of clay, is always diſcoloured. This ſtream has worn a channel into the ſoft red ſtone, which forms a ſubſtratum under the city; over which channel is a bridge on the main ſtreet. This ſtream furniſhes a number of mill ſeats within the city and town.

Of the Soil of Hartford. The weſtern part of Hartford has a ſoil of red, gravelly earth very rich and productive. That part which is near the river is covered with a ſtrong clay or a rich black mold. The latter is principally in the meadows adjacent to the river. The clay when manured from the ſtable, yields crops of graſs, exceeding in quality and quantity, the production of any other ſoil. Six tons of the beſt hay have been taken from an acre at two mowings in a ſeaſon; and five tons are not an unuſual crop.

Of New-Haven. The townſhip of New-Haven lies on the ſea ſhore, about ſeven miles from eaſt to weſt; and extends inland from two to five miles. On the eaſt, the limit of the town is the Quinipaug, which Enters the bay, and forms the channel of the harbor. New-Haven is a ſeat of government, and of Yale College; and a place of conſiderable commerce. In 1790, the town contained nearly four thouſand, five hundred inhabitants; In 1800, five thouſand one hundred and ſixty; of which four thouſand and fifty were within the city. It contains three congregational churches and one epiſcopal.

Of the city of New-Haven. The city of New-Haven ſtands at the head of a bay which forms a harbor, four miles in length, and more than one mile in bredth. It

extends from the Quinipaug to West River, about two miles, and from the entrance of the harbor to the north line of the township more than five miles. Its harbor is safe and spacious; but the channel is narrow, and not deep. At the end of the wharf, which is two thousand, four hundred feet in length, the water is about seven feet deep in common tides; and the channel at the distance of one fourth of a mile from the wharf, has no more than thirteen or fourteen feet, at high water. This city has a bank, a marine insurance company, and an association for mutual assurance against losses by fire.

Of the Plan and Public Buildings. The city of New-Haven is laid out in squares, on a plain; to the north-west and north-east of which are two steep cliffs, at the termination of two ridges of hills, which have a romantic appearance. In the center of the city, is a public square of sixty rods extent. Through the center, runs a line of public buildings, including the state house, two churches and a school house, in front of which runs Temple-street, bordered with trees. To the west of this square, and overlooking it, are the edifices of Yale College, consisting of three colleges, a chapel and a museum. The whole square, surrounded with handsome houses, and planted with trees, presents a delightful prospect.

Of New-London. New-London is situated on the west side of the river Pequot, about three miles from its entrance into the sound. The harbor is one of the best in the United States; it is safe, spacious, with deep water and an easy entrance. The city stands on high ground, and is healthful. It contains one episcopal and one congregational church. From this port is carried on the principal trade of the eastern part of the state. Its inhabitants in 1800, were five thousand one hundred and fifty; but the town has since been divided. In this city is a bank.

Of Norwich. Norwich is a pleasantly situated town, *at the head of* navigation on the Pequot river, fourteen *miles north* of New-London. It contains three prin-

pal settlements—one at the landing place, called Chelsea, another one mile and a half north, which is the original and most central settlement—and a third, about the same distance northerly. These compact settlements are places of trade—the rest of the town consists of farmers. The town in 1800 contained three thousand four hundred and eighty inhabitants.

Of the Commercial parts of Norwich. Chelsea is situated on a steep hill, at the head of tide water. It consists of houses and stores clustered together on the declivity, in an irregular manner, and exhibiting a romantic appearance. The central settlement, or town, lies partly around a handsome green, on which is the court house, and partly along the foot of a hill, in a circular form, around a meadow; the other settlement is on elevated ground. All parts of the city exhibit many handsome and some elegant buildings. In this city there is a bank and an insurance company.

Of Middletown. Middletown is situated on the west bank of the Connecticut, fifteen miles below Hartford, where the river forms an elbow, just above its passage through the highlands. The city is spread over a gentle declivity, which exhibits the streets and buildings to great advantage. When viewed from the distant hills, it appears like a vast amphitheater, presenting a prospect as delightful as the situation is healthful. This town and Haddam are the seats of the courts in middlesex county. The public buildings in Middletown are a court-house, a congregational and an episcopal church. The inhabitants in 1800 were five thousand. In this city is a bank and an insurance company.

Of other considerable Towns. Fairfield and Danbury, the shire towns of Fairfield county, are handsome towns, although burnt by the British troops, during the war. Litchfield, the seat of the courts in Litchfield county, has its principal and a very handsome street, on an elevation, which renders it a peculiarly pleasant and healthful situation, for a summer's residence. On this street are the

public buildings, a church and a court-house. Wethersfield, the oldeſt town in the ſtate, and Windſor, which was the next ſettled, are conſiderable and well built towns. Windham a ſhire town in the county of that name, and many other towns, are populous and well built.

Of the Soil. The ſoil of Connecticut, excepting ſome ſandy plains of ſmall extent, is rich and productive. The eaſtern and weſtern parts are hilly and ſtony; but contain excellent paſturage.

Of the number of Inhabitants. Connecticut is the moſt populous ſtate in the Union; all its lands having been located and ſettled for many years. In 1756, the inhabitants were one hundred and thirty thouſand—in 1774, one hundred and ninety-eight thouſand—in 1790, two hundred and thirty-eight thouſand, and in 1800, two hundred and fifty one thouſand, excluſive of nine hundred and fifty ſlaves.

Of the Manufactures. The people in Connecticut are moſtly farmers and artificers. The farmers make in their own families, coarſe ſtockings, linnen and woolen cloths; but not in quantities ſufficient for their own uſe. Lether, ſhoes, ſaddles, nails and moſt of the utenſils of farmers are manufactured among themſelves. Cannon and pigs are caſt at the furnace in Saliſbury, a town which contains inexhauſtible mines of iron ore. Anchors, bar iron, ſteel and nail rods are furniſhed, in large quantities, by the forges in Canaan, Colebrook, Winchester and other towns, and hollow ware, is made in Stafford and Saliſbury. Powder and paper are made in conſiderable quantities. Large quantities of wheat moſtly purchaſed in New-York, are floured for exportation at the mills in Stamford.

Of the Fiſheries. The fiſheries of Connecticut conſiſt in the taking of ſalmon, ſhad and alewives, in the months of April and May. The quantities taken furniſh a large portion of food for the inhabitants, near the rivers eſpecially along the Connecticut; and ſalmon is ſent to the New-York market. Conſiderable quantities of ſhad and

alewives are salted for foreign markets. The Connecticut abounds with sturgeon, but no use is made of them. Stonington prosecutes the cod fishery with advantage.

Of the Commerce. Until within a few years, the trade of Connecticut was confined almost solely to the West-Indies; but lately, voyages to the south-sea for seal skins and thence to China for a market, and a trade to the Mediterranean, have been prosecuted with zeal and success. No state is better accommodated with water carriage—almost one-third of the towns, lie contiguous to navigable and boatable water. The whole Atlantic shore of the state is washed by the sound, and protected by Long-Island which greatly facilitates the coasting trade to New-York. The inland trade is greatly augmented by the lock navigation on the Connecticut, by which means commodities are transported by water to Hartford from the interior of Vermont and New-Hampshire.

Of the Exports. The principal articles of export, are beef, pork, cattle, horses, mules, and small live stock; lumber, especially hoops, staves and heading; maize in grain or in kiln-dried meal, rye, butter, cheese, onions and potatoes; pot and pearl ashes, flax-seed, fish; soap and candles. The value of the exports directly from Connecticut amounted in 1800, to more than a million of dollars; but two thirds of the articles exported are sent to New-York, in payment for dry goods there purchased, and make a part of the exports from that state.

Of the State of Learning. Soon after the settlement of Connecticut, the general court passed laws directing schools to be kept in every village, and providing funds to encourage them. Every town or village containing a certain number of families, was directed to maintain a school, and empowered to draw from the treasury of the state, a sum equal to one five hundredth part of the amount of the property of the town, as assessed in the grand list. By means of this provision, common schools have been kept *in all parts* of the state, and every person is taught to *read, write,* and keep accounts. By the sale of the west-

ern reserve in 1795, still more liberal and permanent funds were provided for the support of schools. In winter the larger children are instructed by men; in summer, small children attend the schools, and are taught by women; in general the instructors are selected from persons of good families and reputation.

Of Yale College. Yale College, so called, from a principal benefactor, was founded in the year 1700 at Killingworth, but fixed at New-Haven in 1716. It consists of three colleges, each containing thirty-two rooms, a chapel and museum—has a library of about two thousand volumes, and a philosophical apparatus. Its funds are ample, and from thirty to sixty students are annually graduated at the public commencement in September. It is under the direction of trustees, consisting of eleven clergymen and eight laymen. The vacancies among the clerical members are supplied by the board of trustees—The lay members are the governor, lieutenant-governor, and six senior members of the council of the state, or upper house.

Of Academies and Grammar Schools. By law a grammar school may be established in any town in the state, by a vote of the inhabitants in legal meeting; and many academies are established and maintained by private funds. In these are taught not only the primary branches of learning, but geography, grammar, the languages, and higher branches of mathematics. There are also academies for young ladies, in which are taught, the additional branches of needle-work, drawing, and embroidery.—Among the academies of the first reputation are, one in Plainfield, and the Bacon academy in Colchester, whose funds amount to about thirty-five thousand dollars. The most distinguished schools for young ladies are, union school in New-Haven, and one in Litchfield.

Of the Government. By the charter of king Charles the second, which is the basis of the constitution of Connecticut, the *legislative* power is lodged in two houses, which are denominated the general court. The upper house or

council is composed of the governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve assistants, chosen annually; the house of representatives consists of deputies from the several towns chosen twice a year. Most of the towns send two deputies. The general court sits twice a year—at Hartford, at the general election on the second Thursday in May—and at New-Haven, on the second Thursday in October. The two houses have a negative on each other. The governor, or in his absence, the lieutenant-governor presides in the upper house, with a casting vote.

Of the qualifications of Electors. The electors are called *freemen*, whose qualifications are inhabitancy, legal age, possession of real estate to the value of seven dollars a year, or property in the grand list to the amount of one hundred and thirty-four dollars, and peaceable behavior. No other qualification is required to entitle a man to any office of honor or profit.

Of the choice of Councillors. The mode of electing members of the council, or upper house, is peculiar to Connecticut. At the election of deputies in September, the freemen give their votes for twenty persons, and these votes being counted at the session of the assembly in October, the persons, having the most votes, stand in nomination; that is, form the list of candidates, out of which twelve persons are to be selected by the votes of the freemen, in April following, to be the assistants or councillors for the year ensuing. The annual election, when the votes are counted and the officers of government enter on their duties, is on the second Thursday of May. The representatives in congress are elected in a similar manner.

Of the Executive. In Connecticut, a small part of the executive duties of the government is vested in the chief magistrate. The appointment of all judges, justices of the peace, and all military officers, is made by the general court; and the persons appointed are commissioned by the governor. Sheriffs are appointed by the governor and *council*—the treasurer and secretary are elected annually

by the people. Notaries public are appointed by the governor.

Of the Powers vested in the Towns. All the towns are corporations, authorised by law to chuse certain officers, who execute the laws within the limits of the towns. A town meeting is by law to be held annually in December, at which are to be chosen certain men, who are called *selectmen*, to superintend all town concerns; also constables, collectors of taxes, surveyors of highways, grand jurymen, and other officers. These officers have the care of the poor, of roads and bridges, of ferries, and other local concerns.

Of the Judiciary. The judiciary power is lodged in the justices of the peace, who try causes, civil and criminal, where the debt or penalty does not exceed seven dollars, without appeal; in the county courts, which try small offenses, and decide, without appeal, all demands under seventy dollars; and in the superior court, which has supreme jurisdiction in all causes, both in law and equity; but a writ of error lies from this court to the supreme court of errors, which consists of the governor and council, and is held in June at Hartford and New-Haven alternately. The state is divided into small districts, in which are established courts of probate for the trial of wills, and granting of administration. All judges are annually appointed by the legislature.

Of the Militia. All the able bodied men in the state from the age of eighteen to forty-five, except officers of government, officers and students of college, clergymen, and some others, are enrolled and form the militia of the state. The militia is formed into thirty-five regiments, eight brigades, and four divisions. The officers are appointed by the general assembly, and commissioned by the governor; the captains and subalterns being first nominated by their several companies.

Of the Religion. The most numerous denomination of Christians, is the congregationalists; next to which in numbers are the episcopalians. There are several socie-

ties of baptists and some methodists in the state—a few quakers and others of different persuasions. The state is divided into parishes or ecclesiastical societies, which are legal corporations, with power to chuse their ministers, make contracts with them, and lay taxes for their maintenance. All persons within the parish are bound by the vote of the inhabitants in legal meeting; but a person dissenting from the worship of any congregation, may lodge a certificate of his dissent, and of his joining some other church, and be exempt from taxes laid by the parish.

General Remarks. The five eastern states, may very properly be denominated *New-England;* for almost all the inhabitants are descendants of Englishmen. The first settlers, with a view to preclude differences in religion, made laws to prevent strangers from settling among them, without the approbation of the men in authority. Hence the people of these states have a distinct and uniform character and language. Their language is nearly the same as that of England, at the time of the first emigrations, unadulterated with modern corruptions. Their laws, manners, and institutions are also very similar.

Of the Mode of Settlement. The settlers of New-England divided the country into townships of a few miles square, and convenient for small corporations, which were to regulate their own local affairs. A church and a school house, destined to be the nurseries of religion and improvement, were fixed near the center of the township; which invited the first settlers to build their houses in a compact assemblage, in the vicinity. Hence New-England was parcelled into townships, and soon overspread with towns—a mode of settlement highly favorable to society, civil manners, and moral improvement. The emigrants from New-England pursue a similar mode of settlement in the western states.

New-York.

Of the Situation of the State of New-York. This state, which takes its name from the duke of York, the ancient

prietor, lies on the west and south of New-England, m forty degrees and a half to forty-five degrees of latie, and between seventy-three and eighty degrees of t longitude. The form of the state is very irregular l Long-Island, Staten-Island, with Fishers and Gards islands, lie detached from the main body of the state.

Of the Bounds. From the city of New-York, on Manten island, to the north line of New-Jersey, about nty miles, the Hudson is the western boundary of the e which is only twenty miles in bredth. To the north New-Jersey, the state of New-York spreads westward ng the north line of New-Jersey, and Pennsylvania to bredth of three hundred miles. On the north, it is nded by Canada—on the east, by Connecticut, Massaisetts and Vermont, and on the south by the ocean.

Of the Extent. The length of this state, from the south l of Staten-Island to the Canada line, is about three ndred and fifty miles—its greatest bredth from Massaisetts to lake Erie, is about the same as its length. But bredth of land does not extend a hundred miles, north l south, and as the southern part of the state is narrow s probable that the area of the state may be bounded sides of three hundred miles by two hundred—which l give, for its surface, sixty thousand square miles, and ty-eight millions, four hundred thousand acres. This mate does not include the waters of Ontario, a large t of which is within this state.

Of the Mountains. A range of mountains runs across state, about sixty miles north of New-York, called highlands. At the place where the Hudson penetes this range, the river is compressed into a narrow p channel between the mountains. For this reason, l the advantageous situation of the hills, commanding river, this place was selected for a military post, and tified, during the war. It is the key of the river and led West-point. On the west of the same river, one ndred and thirty miles from New-York is the Kaatskill ntain one of the highest elevations in the northern state.

Of the Rivers. In addition to the Hudson, which penetrates the state, with navigable water to Albany, and its western branch, the Mohawk, which have been described, this state boasts of numerous smaller streams, which water all parts of it. On the east, is Hoosuck which has its sources in Lanesborough and Hancock in Massachusetts, and enters the Hudson, eight miles above Lansingburgh.—Battenkill, a considerable stream, furnishing numerous mill seats, proceeds from a spring at the foot of a mountain in Bromley, in Vermont, and enters the Hudson, opposite to Saratoga. The head branch of Otter Creek has its source on the same mountain and descending it, approaches within twelve rods of the source of Battenkill—then runs northerly and enters Lake Champlain. Still larger is Black river, which enters the Ontario and Oswegatchie, which discharges its waters into the Iroquois.—The Saranac and Sable rivers water the western shores of Champlain, while the Genesee, the Seneka, the head streams of the Susquehanna, the Delaware and the Ohio, with Buffalo, Cataraugus, Tonewanta, and other creeks, water the western districts of this large state.

Of the Divisions of the State. The state of New-York is divided into thirty-three counties. On the south Long-Island contains three counties, King's, Queens, and Suffolk. Statten-Island composes Richmond county, and York-Island, the county of New-York. On and near the Hudson are Westchester, Dutches, Rockland, Orange, Ulster, Green, Albany, Columbia, Rensellaer, Saratoga, and Washington. On the north and west, are Clinton, Essex, Montgomery, Schoharie, Herkemer, Otsego, Onondago, Ontario, Tioga, Steuben, Cayuga, Shenango, Delaware, Genesee, St. Lawrence, Jefferson and Lewis. The townships and cities amount to two hundred and eighty.

Of the Population. The state of New-York was first settled by the Dutch, and for more than a century, the population was slow. In 1756, when the state had been settled nearly one hundred and fifty years, the number of inhabitants was estimated at one hundred thousand only.

After the conqueſt of Canada in 1760, the northern parts of the ſtate began to be ſettled by emigrants from New-England, and at the cloſe of the war in 1783, the ſtate contained by eſtimate, two hundred and forty thouſand ſouls. After that period the emigrations from New-England were more conſiderable, and in 1790, the ſtate contained three hundred and forty thouſand inhabitants. In 1800, the number had increaſed to five hundred and eighty-ſix thouſand, of which twenty thouſand and ſix hundred are ſlaves.

Of the Soil. The weſt end of Long-Iſland has a fertile ſoil; further eaſt are extenſive barren plains, interſperſed with fruitful lands. From New-York to Albany, the ſoil is generally dry and gravelly; and about the highlands, rocky. The weſtern counties conſiſt moſtly of rich loam clay or mold, and they are not mountanious nor ſtony. Above Albany are rich intervals or meadows along the banks of the Hudſon.

Of the Productions. This ſtate extending through five degrees of latitude, produces all the varieties of grain, fruits and roots which grow in ſimilar climates. The ſouthern part of the ſtate being in the mild region of the United States, is furniſhed with fruits of the beſt kinds. The northern part near Canada, will not produce the peach and water melon in perfection. Wheat is the ſtaple commodity of the ſtate.

Of the Manufactures. The people of this ſtate, make a part of their clothing in their own houſes, but by no means a ſufficiency for their conſumption. Iron, hollow ware, ſtoves, nails, glaſs, paper, ſnuff, tobacco, wool cards, pot and pearl aſhes are manufactured in this ſtate. The iron caſtings are principally from the air furnaces in and near the city of New-York or the highlands. In the city alſo are refined large quantities of ſugar; beer and porter are furniſhed by the ſeveral breweries—beer being the common drink of the inhabitants.

Of the Chief Towns. The city of New-York is the *metropolis of the* ſtate, and one of the principal towns in

the United States. It is situated upon the point of Manhatten or York-Island, which is fifteen miles in length and one in bredth. It is washed by the Hudson on the west, and on the east by Harlem river, and the strait which connects the Hudson with the sound, dividing Long-Island from the main.

Of the Position of the City. New-York was begun on the south-east side of the island; but has been extended to the Hudson, and now covers the whole bredth of the island. On both sides, the principal streets run nearly parallel with the rivers, and are crossed by others which run from river to river; but the streets are not all at right angles. The principal streets are tolerably wide and well paved, with foot-walks of flat stone or brick. The water works of the Manhattan company raise water from wells, near the fresh water pond, by means of a steam engine, and distribute it by pipes, through the streets of the city.

Of Broad-way and the Park. Broad-way, a wide and well built street, begins at the government house, which stands on the ground formerly occupied by the fort, near the walk at the battery; and running northward on the highest part of the island, presents a strait avenue of nearly two miles in length. On one side of this street, in front of the court-house, prison and bridewell, and with the theatre and Chatham street on the south, is a triangular area, inclosed with trees. The battery, a gravelled walk along the point of the island, next to the water, and open to refreshing breezes from the bay, is the place of fashionable resort, during the summer.

Of the Buildings. That part of the city which was built before the revolution was not remarkable for the size and elegance of the houses. But a large part of the city has been built since the peace of 1783, with elegant houses and stores of three and four stories—the city has been greatly extended—the streets repaired—the public buildings enlarged, repaired or ornamented—and for *many miles* from the city, the island is adorned with *handsome villas* and summer-houses.

Of the public Edifices. The city-hall, which was enlarged and repaired for the use of Congress in 1789, is a large pile without external elegance; but is distinguished for being the seat of the first Congress under the national constitution; and the place where the celebrated Washington was inaugurated first President of the United States. The government house, the court-house, the banks, tontine coffee-house, the hotel, the theater, the alms-house, the hospital, the bridewell, the jail, several of the churches, and the state prison, are large and expensive works—and evidences of the affluence and public spirit of the inhabitants.

Of the inhabitants of the city. The citizens of New-York are composed of the descendants of the original Dutch settlers, English, Scotch, Irish, and Germans. The number increased from eleven thousand in 1756, to twenty-two thousand in 1771. From that time to 1786, the revolution intervening, the number increased only to twenty three thousand. In 1790, the number was thirty-three thousand. In 1800, sixty thousand. But these numbers, include the people of the whole island. The religious denominations are episcopalians, Dutch calvinists, presbyterians, German lutherans, quakers, baptists, catholics, methodists, moravians, jews, and French protestants.

Of the Banks and Insurance companies. There are four Banks in the city of New-York. 1. The New-York bank, instituted in 1784, and incorporated in 1791. 2. A branch of the United States bank. 3. The Manhattan bank, instituted and incorporated in 1799. 4. The Merchants bank instituted in 1803. There are four incorporated companies for insurance against losses at sea, and two associations incorporated for the purpose of mutual assurance against losses by fire.

Of charitable Societies. In this city are many societies formed for charitable purposes, which are as useful to the indigent as honorable to the founders. Such is that for the relief of distressed debtors, who are imprisoned and *have not the means of* support. The dispensary, for the

relief of the ſick—the lying-in hoſpital—the marine and mechanics ſocieties, and many others.

Of the Government of the city. New-York is under the government of a mayor, recorder, aldermen and aſſiſtants, who compoſe the common council. The mayor and recorder are appointed by the council of appointment. The aldermen and aſſiſtants are choſen annually by the freemen—one in each of the nine wards of the city. The mayor and recorder hold courts for the trial of civil and criminal cauſes. The common council make laws for the government of the city, but they cannot lay a tax on the city, without an act of the legiſlature.

Of Albany. Albany is a large, thriving city, on the weſt bank of the Hudſon, one hundred and ſixty-five miles north of New-York. It is the ſeat of government and the public offices—has two banks, the Albany bank and ſtate bank, contains about ten thouſand inhabitants, with many elegant buildings, and has an active thriving commerce.

Of the commerce of New-York. The ſtate of New-York is advantageouſly ſituated for trade being penetrated by a fine navigable river, interſected with boatable waters, and waſhed on the north and ſouth with lakes, or the ocean. The city of New-York, at the mouth of the Hudſon, and at the junction of that river with the ſound, with a ſafe and capacious harbor, for ſhips of any ſize, poſſeſſes the moſt commanding ſituation for trade, and is the natural port of entry and export for New-York, Connecticut, and for a great part of New-Jerſey, Vermont and Canada. In cold winters when moſt of the harbors in the northern ſtates are cloſed with ice, the harbor of New-York, which is ſeldom obſtructed, receives the ſhipping of other ſtates, to enliven the trade of the country.

Of the Exports. The exports from New-York conſiſt of every ſpecies of the produce of the United States, and of all kinds of foreign commodities which are there re-ſhipped for market. The ſtaple commodity of the ſtate is wheat or flour; but from New-York are exported the

beef, pork, maiz, butter, cheese, pot and pearl ashes, and flax-seed, not only of that state, but of Connecticut, New-Jersey and Vermont. The amount of exports from that city in 1800, was fourteen millions of dollars—a greater amount than from any other port. That city also imports dry goods for the neighboring states.

Of the State of Learning. A college was founded in the city of New-York in 1754, and incorporated by charter from the king. After the revolution, the legislature instituted a university consisting of a number of regents, whose powers extend to the superintendence of colleges, academies and schools, throughout the state. They are authorised to found colleges and academies, confer degrees, visit all seminaries of learning, and make regulations for their government.

Of Columbia and Union Colleges. By the act of the legislature in 1787, founding the university of the state, the college in New-York received the name of *Columbia*, and all the privileges and powers, derived from its charter, were confirmed. It is under the government of twenty-four trustees, and has considerable funds. Its instructors are, a president and professors of the principal sciences. The building is of stone, three stories high, and containing forty-eight apartments. The college is furnished with a chapel, a library, museum, and philosophical apparatus. Union college was founded at Schenectady in 1795, and is in a prosperous condition.

Of Academies and Schools. Several respectable academies are established in different parts of the state, in which are taught the learned languages, geography, grammar, and mathematics. Until since the revolution, common schools received no encouragement from the public treasury, or the laws. But in 1795, a law of the state appropriated a large sum of money for erecting school houses, and paying teachers, the beneficial effects of which are visible. Hitherto however the instruction of the laboring people in the first rudiments of learning, has not been *general.*

Of the State of Religion. The constitution of New-York gives universal indulgence to religious persuasions, without distinction or preference. The principal denominations, are the lutheran and calvinist churches, both Dutch and English, the congregational and presbyterian. Some of these churches in the large cities are well endowed and filled with able preachers, but many of the inhabitants of the interior of the state have no regular dispensation of divine ordinances.

Of the Constitution of Civil Government. The supreme legislative power is vested in two houses, called the senate and assembly, which meet regularly in January. The executive authority is lodged in a governor, and a council of appointment. As a check to the legislature, a council of revision is constituted of the governor, the chancellor and the judges of the supreme court, who have power to examine bills which have passed the two houses, and if they see proper, to object to their becoming laws, giving their reasons in writing. After which two thirds of the votes of both houses are necessary to give such bills the force of laws.

Of the Senate. The senate consists of freeholders chosen in districts, by citizens who possess freehold estates of the value of two hundred and fifty dollars, free of debts charged upon them. The members hold their seats for four years; the seats of one fourth part being vacated every year, and their places supplied by a new election.

Of the Assembly. The members of the assembly are chosen annually in April. The qualifications of their electors are, six months residence in the county, legal age, a freehold of fifty dollars value, or renting a tenement of five dollars annual value, and payment of taxes. A minister of the gospel cannot hold any civil or military office.

Of the Governor. The governor is chosen once in three years, by the citizens qualified to vote for senators, and at the time and places of electing the representatives in the *assembly*. The governor is commander in chief of the mi-

ſtria, and has power to grant reprieves and pardons. The governor alſo, with the advice and conſent of a council, compoſed of a ſenator from each diſtrict, annually choſen by the aſſembly, appoints and commiſſions the judges, ſheriffs, and other executive officers. The lieutenant-governor is choſen in the ſame manner as the governor, and in his abſence, ſupplies his place. He is alſo preſident of the ſenate.

Of the Judiciary. The chancellor holds courts of equity. The judges of the ſupreme and county courts hold courts of law. The ſupreme court ſits only in New-York and Albany; but circuit courts, conſiſting of a judge of the ſupreme court, are held in every county in the ſtate. The judges hold their offices during good behavior, or till they are ſixty years of age. A court for the trial of impeachments muſt conſiſt of the ſenate, the chancellor and the judges of the ſupreme court. The ſenate is the ſupreme court for the correction of errors.

Of the Militia. The militia in the year 1802, was compoſed of five diviſions of infantry, twenty-five brigades, ninety-three regiments and nearly ſeventy thouſand privates and ſubaltern officers—of eighteen hundred cavalry, and eight hundred artillery, including officers.

Of the State of Real Property. Before the revolution, a large portion of the colony of New-York was parcelled out into manors, which were in the hands of a few families. Several of the proprietors, adhering to the royal cauſe, during the war, loſt their eſtates by forfeiture and confiſcation. Theſe eſtates were divided and ſold. A few manors, belonging to the friends of the revolution are retained by the families; but a law of the ſtate, altering the tenure of the lands, and deſtroying future entailments, is calculated to reduce the manors, into ſmall eſtates.

New-Jersey.

Of the Situation and Name. New-Jerſey is ſituated between thirty-nine and forty-one degrees, twenty-four minutes, *of north latitude*; and in the ſeventy-fifth and ſixth

degrees of west longitude. The grant of this territory was first made by king Charles the second to his brother James, then duke of York, who owned an estate in the island of Jersey, and who therefore called this territory *New-Jersey.*

Of the Bounds and Extent. New-Jersey is bounded on the east by the Atlantic and the Hudson; on the south and west by Delaware bay and river, and on the north, by New-York. Its length, north and south, is about one hundred and sixty miles, and its bredth, fifty; comprehending about five millions of acres.

Of the Face of the State. New-Jersey contains no great mountains. The southern part is a plain, and great part of it a barren sand. The middle and northern parts consist of hills and plains, which are variegated with streams of water and fine tracts of fertile land. The rivers Hackinsac, Passaic, and Raritan, which rise in the hilly country on the north, water that part of the state, and form rich intervals. By means of these rivers and the Hudson and Delaware on the borders, the whole state lies within twenty-five miles of navigable and boatable water.

Of the Divisions of the State. The grant to the duke of York was very early divided and sold to different proprietors. The divisional line run, north and south, nearly through the middle of the territory, and gave rise to the denominations of east and west Jersey. The state is now divided into thirteen counties. On the east, Bergen, Essex, Middlesex and Monmouth; on the west and south, Sussex, Hunterdon, Burlington, Gloucester, Salem, Cumberland and Cape-May; and in the interior, Somerset and Morris. These counties are divided into townships.

Of the Population. In 1785, the state of New-Jersey contained one hundred and thirty-nine thousand whites, and ten thousand five hundred blacks—In 1790, the number had increased to one hundred and eighty-four thousand whites, and eleven thousand four hundred slaves.—*In 1800, to* two hundred and eleven thousand inhabitants, *of which* twelve thousand were slaves.

Chief Towns. The principal towns are Trenton, Burlington, Bordentown, Elizabethtown, Amboy, Newark, Brunswick, Princeton, and Morristown—all which are of considerable size, well built and pleasant. Trenton is the seat of government; and Princeton, the seat of Nassau Hall college, situated on high commanding ground, near the center of the state, though a small town, is a most healthful and delightful residence.

Of the Climate and Productions. New-Jersey is in the middle and temperate region of the United States; the southern part, extending a degree to the southward of New-York, has a milder climate. The northern part is hilly and more cold. From the middle of the state to Cape-May, the state contains much barren land; but it produces all kinds of grain, fruits and roots. The fruits are remarkably good, particularly the apple and the peach. The northern counties contain excellent pasturage, and beef, mutton, butter and cheese, in large quantities are sent to the New-York market. The pork and bacon of the western counties are in high repute and so is the cider of the eastern.

Of the Manufactures. Few manufactures have made much progress in New-Jersey, except that of iron.—This is a considerable branch of business particularly in Morris country, which furnishes inexhaustible mines of ore, with abundance of wood and convenient streams of water. Two furnaces, two rolling and slitting mills, and about thirty forges, produce yearly fourteen hundred tons of bar and pig iron, besides hollow ware and other castings. It is estimated that twenty-five hundred tons are produced in the state. Nails, lether, and some cottons are also made in New-Jersey.

Of the Commerce. New-Jersey, being a tongue of land between the Hudson and Delaware, and having the two principal trading cities of the United States, in its neighborhood, has little foreign commerce, although the bay and river at Amboy, furnish an excellent harbor. The produce of the eastern part of the state is carried to New-

York—that of the western to Philadelphia, and forms a considerable part of the amount of exports from those cities.

Of the State of Learning. The education of youth in New-Jersey depends on the voluntary contributions of individuals, and therefore is neglected by some classes of the people. In the more populous towns and villages are academies and schools of high reputation. The college at Princeton, called Nassau Hall, is a seminary of distinguished reputation, and from thirty to forty students are annually graduated at the public commencement.

Of the Religious Denominations. The inhabitants of New-Jersey consist of the descendants of the Dutch, English, German, Scotch and Irish settlers. These are of all denominations, and have equal liberty of worshipping in their own modes, without the interference of law, or any establishment. As a qualification for office however it is necessary that a person should be a protestant.

Of the Constitution. The supreme legislative power is lodged in a council and general assembly. The council consists of one member for each county, and the assembly, of three deputies from each county. These form separate houses, whose concurrence is necessary to the passing of a law. The qualifications of a councillor are, one year's residence in the county for which he is chosen, and possession of real and personal estate of the value of two thousand six hundred and sixty-seven dollars. One half of this sum qualifies a man for a member of the assembly.

Of the Electors. All the inhabitants of New-Jersey are entitled to vote for rulers, if they have the following qualifications—full age, one year's residence in the county where they claim to vote, and possession of property in the same of the value of one hundred and thirty-three dollars and a third. Under this constitution, females enjoy and exercise the privilege of voting—a singularity peculiar to that state.

Of the Executive. The council and assembly, at their first meeting after the election in October, jointly elect a

person for governor, who presides in the council with a casting vote, and in whom is vested the supreme executive power. The council and assembly appoint the judges of courts, justices of the peace, secretary and treasurer; who are commissioned by the governor.

Of the Judges and other Officers. The judges of the supreme court hold their offices for seven years; judges of the common pleas, justices of the peace, and secretary, for five years; the treasurer for one year. But all officers may be re-appointed. Sheriffs are yearly chosen by the people, and may be re-elected for three years in succession; they then remain ineligible for three years.—Judges of the supreme and county courts, and sheriffs are precluded from a seat in the legislature.

Of the Military. Captains and inferior officers are chosen by the military companies; superior officers are appointed by the council and assembly.

Pennsylvania.

Of the Name and Situation. The name of Pennsylvania is composed of the name of the first proprietor, *Penn*, and a word formed from sylva, a *wood* or *forest*. The state lies between the middle of the fortieth and the forty-second degrees of latitude, and the seventy-fifth and eighty degrees of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. On the east Pennsylvania is bounded by the Delaware, which separates it from New-Jersey—on the south it adjoins to the states of Delaware, Maryland and Virginia—on the west, it has a part of Virginia and the state of Ohio—on the north, it is bounded by lake Erie and the state of New-York.

Of the Extent. The bredth of Pennsylvania, from south to north, is about one hundred and fifty miles, and its length, from east to west, two hundred and ninety. Its surface contains forty-four thousand square miles, and twenty-eight millions of acres.

Of the Mountains. This state is intersected with the high ridges of mountains which constitute the Alle-

gany and its ſeveral branches or ſpurs. Their direction is from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, through Northampton, Dauphin, Cumberland and other middle counties. Theſe mountains furniſh the principal ſources of the Ohio, Potomac, Suſquehanna, Schuylkill and Delaware rivers, *with* ſeveral rivers of ſmaller note.

Of the Principal Rivers. The chief rivers are, the Delaware on the eaſt, the Suſquehanna, which penetrates the ſtate, the Schuylkill, the Lehigh, a branch of the Delaware; and on the weſt of the mountains, the Allegany, or head branch of the Ohio, and Monongahela—all which have been before deſcribed. To theſe may be added the Juniata, the Coneſtoga, the Yohogany, the Kiſkamanitas, Big Beaver Creek, and many other conſiderable ſtreams, which form the ſources of the large rivers, and ſpread water over the ſtate in all directions.

Of the Counties and Towns. The number of counties in the year 1803, was thirty-two, and the townſhips about five hundred and twenty, excluſive of the city and liberties of Philadelphia.

Of the Soil and Productions. Pennſylvania contains all the varieties of ſoil. Its productions are all ſorts of grain, roots and fruits common in temperate latitudes. The ſtaple of the ſtate is wheat or flour, of which great quantities are exported. In this ſtate grow ſeveral ſpecies of trees not found in more northern climates.

Of the Principal Towns. The city of Philadelphia is the chief town in Pennſylvania. It was founded by William Penn, in 1683, and from him it received its name, which is compoſed of two Greek words, ſignifying *brotherly love.* It ſtands on the weſt bank of the Delaware, one hundred and twenty miles from the ſea, and five miles above its junction with the Schuylkill.

Of the Plan of Philadelphia. Philadelphia, according to its primitive plan, extends about a mile along the Delaware, and from that river to the Schuylkill. But the conveniences for trade have enlarged the ſettlements on the Delaware, to an extent of nearly three miles. The north

part of the town is called Kenſington—the ſouth part, Southwark. Theſe now form one continued ſettlement or town, in union with the city.

Of the Streets. The principal ſtreets are ſtrait, and croſs each other at right angles; nine of theſe within the city run from one river to the other; and theſe are croſſed by twenty-three which run nearly north and ſouth. Theſe ſtreets are built on, from the Delaware to tenth and twelfth ſtreets. In the center of the city runs high ſtreet one hundred feet wide, in which is the principal market. The ſtreets in general are fifty feet in bredth, well paved, and bordered with broad footwalks, paved with brick. The ſtreets which run eaſt and weſt are called by the names of the trees which grew on the land, as mulbury, cheſnut, walnut, pine and ſpruce. Thoſe which run north and ſouth are called and numbered from the Delaware, water, front, ſecond, third, &c.

Of the Banks and Inſurance Companies. There are four incorporated banks in Philadelphia—the bank of the United States—the bank of North-America—the bank of Pennſylvania, and the Philadelphia bank. There are ſeveral incorporated companies, for inſurance againſt loſſes at ſea, and by fire.

Of the Buildings. That part of the city which was built before the American revolution, conſiſts moſtly of brick houſes, three ſtories high, plain and well built.—Since the revolution, large additions have been made, the houſes are conſtructed on a larger plan, and with unuſual taſte and elegance. The market houſe in high-ſtreet is the largeſt building of the kind in America, and for abundance of proviſions, neatneſs and regularity, is not exceeded by any perhaps in the world.

Of the Public Edifices. The public edifices of moſt importance are the churches, ſome of which, as particularly the German Lutheran, are unuſually large and elegant. The ſtate-houſe is a very large edifice—the new court-houſe, the theater, the library, the hoſpital, the alms-houſe, are large and handſome ſtructures. The jail is one of

the largeſt and beſt conſtructed buildings of the kind in the United States. The new edifice for the bank of the United States, is a moſt elegant ſtructure, ornamented in front with marble columns. The bank of Pennſylvania is an elegant ſtructure of white marble, quarried a few miles from the city, and each front is ornamented with ſix Ionic columns of marble. Over the Schuylkill is a bridge ſupported by ſolid elliptical piers.

Of the Public Inſtitutions. The charitable inſtitutions in Philadelphia, are among the moſt liberal and uſeful in the United States. Of theſe the moſt diſtinguiſhed are, the hoſpital, the alms-houſe and the diſpenſary. The library, with the Logarian addition of rare and valuable authors, is one of the largeſt and beſt ſelected collection of books in the United States. The univerſity is eminent, eſpecially for the reputation of its medical profeſſors.—The philoſophical ſociety holds a diſtinguiſhed rank among literary inſtitutions. Many charitable ſocieties, academies and ſchools do honor to the citizens; and the cabinet of curioſities, collected by Mr. Peale, is the beſt in the United States. It conſiſts of all kinds of animals in good preſervation, and a valuable collection of minerals.

Of the Water-works. The building and machinery for raiſing and diſtributing water through the city, far exceed in magnitude, any thing of the kind in this country. A large ſtream of water is brought in a ſubterraneous canal, from the Schuylkill, to an elevation near the center of the city; the water is then raiſed by ſteam to a reſervoir on the top of a circular brick edifice, from which it is diſtributed by bored logs to the different parts of the city.

Of the Population. The indulgence of all religious opinions in Pennſylvania, and other allurements offered to ſettlers by the proprietors, rendered the growth of the province and the city of Philadelphia very rapid. In 1749, the houſes in Philadelphia were upwards of two thouſand—in 1760, nearly three thouſand—in 1770, five *thouſand* five hundred. The inhabitants in the latter *years were* thirty-five thouſand. The revolution ſuſpend*ed the growth* of the city. In 1790, the inhabitants of

the city and suburbs were forty-one thousand—in 1800, seventy-two thousand. The city is governed by a mayor, aldermen and common council.

Of the inhabitants of the State. The province of Pennsylvania was first peopled by the friends or quakers under the patronage of their celebrated leader, William Penn. But the liberal privileges offered to all denominations, drew settlers from Ireland and Germany as well as England, and the greatest part of the present inhabitants are emigrants from those countries, or their descendants. In 1790, the number was four hundred and thirty-four thousand: In 1800, six hundred and four thousand, of which eleven hundred and fifty were slaves.

Of the Manufactures. Pennsylvania is distinguished for its manufactures, of which the principal are bar iron, nails, and almost every species of Iron castings; paper, books, leather, gun-powder, glauber's salt, flour, loaf-sugar, chocolate, hair-powder, snuff, tobacco, utensils and furniture of all kinds, carriages, hats, saddlery, beer and porter, some cotton cloths, linen and stockings, brick of an excellent fabric and beauty; and a multitude of other articles. The mint of the United States is at Philadelphia.

Of the Commerce. The commerce of Philadelphia extends to all parts of the world, and comprehends the purchase and sale of every species of commodity. The exports consist mostly of the staple, flour, grain of several kinds, iron, utensils of all kinds, mahogany furniture, carriages, and other manufactured articles, East and West India and European goods. The value of the exports from that city in 1800 amounted nearly to twelve millions of dollars.

Of the state of Learning. In Pennsylvania is one university, the seat of which is Philadelphia; a college at Carlisle and another at Lancaster. There are numerous academies and schools in Philadelphia and other large towns. The legislature have reserved sixty thousand acres of land as a fund for supporting public schools. The

Moravian academies, at Bethlehem and Nazareth, are noted for strict disciplin and morals.

Of the Militia. The militia according to returns made to the War-Office in the year 1802, consisted of thirteen divisions, twenty-six brigades, and one hundred and thirty-eight regiments, containing seventy-six thousand effective infantry. No artillery, cavalry or grenadiers are mentioned in the returns.

Of the Constitution of Government. The power of making laws is vested in the general assembly consisting of two branches, a senate and a house of representatives. The representatives are chosen for one year; and the number cannot be less than sixty nor more than a hundred.—The number is determined by the legislature and apportioned on the counties and the city of Philadelphia according to the number of taxable inhabitants. The senators are chosen by districts for four years, and the number cannot be less than a fourth, nor more than a third of the number of representatives.

Of the qualifications of Representatives and Senators. To entitle a man to be a representative, he must be twenty-one years of age, a citizen and inhabitant of the state three years preceding his election, and one year a resident in the city or county in which he is chosen. A senator must be twenty one years of age, and have been four years before his election a citizen of the state, and one year an inhabitant of the district for which he is chosen.

Of the qualifications of the Electors. To entitle a man to the privilege of voting for rulers, he must be of legal age; must have resided in the state two years before the election and have paid a state or county tax, which has been assessed six months before the election. The sons of electors, between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-two, are entitled to vote without having paid taxes. Elections are by ballot.

Of the Executive Power. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor who is chosen on the second *Tuesday of* October, once in three years, but can hold the

ce no more than nine years in twelve. A plurality of es decides the choice. The governor must be thirty ırs of age, and must have been a citizen and inhabit- : of the state for seven years, next before his election. : appoints the judges, justices of the peace, and most ıer officers. But sheriffs are chosen by the freemen, d can hold their offices only three years in six.

Of the Judiciary. The judicial power is vested in a su- :me court, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole te, and several subordinate courts, whose power is li- ted to counties or districts. The judges hold their offi- during good behavior, but may be removed by the vernor on the address of two thirds of the legislature.

Of the Religion of the State. The principal denominations : friends or quakers, presbyterians, episcopalians, and holics; but there are many other persuasions. All ıominations enjoy their principles, and worship without ıtrol or distinction, and no person believing in a God d a future state of rewards and punishments, is disqua- ed for civil offices.

Delaware.

Of the Situation and Extent of Delaware. The state of laware lies on the west side of the river and bay of the ne name, in the thirty-ninth and fortieth degrees of la- ıde, and in the seventy-sixth degree of west longitude. is about ninety miles in length, and on an average, y be twenty four in bredth. It may therefore contain ɔut one million three hundred and eighty thousand es.

Of the Bounds and Name. The state is bounded on the t, by the river, the bay and the ocean; on the south d west, by Maryland, and on the north, by Pennsylva- . It is named after lord Delawar, one of the chief ents in the settlement of Virginia.

Of the Face of the Country. The northern part of the te is hilly; but the principal part is almost perfectly el. Being on a narrow peninsula, between the Dela- *re and Chesopeak,* it has no large rivers; but it is in-

terſected with many ſmall rivers, creeks and inlets. The principal rivers are the Brandywine, memorable for the battle of September 11, 1777, and the Chriſtiana, which unite, and fall into the Delaware, below Wilmington.

Of the Counties and Towns. This ſtate is divided into three counties—Newcaſtle on the north—Kent in the middle, and Suſſex on the ſouth; and into twenty-four diſtricts, called hundreds. The chief town is Wilmington, a handſome town, on an elevation between the Brandywine and Chriſtiana creeks, two miles from the Delaware and twenty-eight from Philadelphia. It is laid out and built with regularity, on the north ſide of the Chriſtiana, which admits veſſels of fourteen feet draft to the town. It is a place of trade and manufactures, and has a bank, called the bank of Delaware.

Of Newcaſtle and Dover. Newcaſtle is a ſmall town, five miles below Wilmington, on the Delaware. It is the oldeſt town on that river; being built by the Swedes about the year 1627.

Dover is a ſmall town on the ſouth ſide of Jones' creek, four miles from the Delaware and forty-eight miles below Wilmington. It contains about a hundred houſes, and in the midſt of the town, a ſpacious ſquare or green. It is the ſeat of government, and has an elegant court-houſe on the eaſt ſide of the ſquare.

Of the Inhabitants. The firſt ſettlements, within the limits of Delaware, were made by the Swedes, and their deſcendants ſtill remain in that ſtate and in Pennſylvania. But the principal part of the inhabitants are of Britiſh origin. The number, in 1790, was fifty-nine thouſand—in 1800, ſixty-four thouſand two hundred and ſeventy, of which ſix thouſand one hundred and fifty were ſlaves.

Of the Soil and Productions. The northern parts of Delaware conſiſt of a ſtrong clay; the ſouthern part, of ſand. The ſoil is fruitful in all the kinds of grain, roots and plants, which are found in the ſame latitudes, in other ſtates or countries; but the ſtaple commodity is wheat.

Of the Manufactures. The principal manufacture is that of flour. The mills on the Brandywine, near Wilmington, are twelve in number, and among the moſt ingenious and complete that are found in this country. On the ſame and other rivers, are mills for various other purpoſes—paper, ſnuff, nail rods, wool cards, bolting cloths, and various other articles, are manufactured in and near Wilmington.

Of the Commerce. This ſtate although in the vicinity of the large city, Philadelphia, carries on no ſmall foreign trade. Its exports, in 1800, amounted to more than four hundred and eighteen thouſand dollars. Beſides wheat and other grain, lumber and various articles of manufacture are exported to foreign countries, and to the neighboring ſtates.

Of the Schools. There are private ſchools in this ſtate, and eſpecially in Wilmington. In 1796, the legiſlature paſſed an act for creating a fund for the ſupport of public ſchools. There is no college in the ſtate, but an academy at Newark, a few miles from Wilmington.

Of the Religious Perſuaſions. In Delaware are many Chriſtian denominations; but the principal are the preſbyterians, epiſcopalians, quakers and baptiſts. There is a Swediſh church at Wilmington, and one of the oldeſt in this country. No preference is allowed by law, to any particular church; but every man, choſen to an office, is required, before entering on its duties, to ſubſcribe a declaration of his belief in the Trinity, and in the divine inſpiration of the ſcriptures. No clergyman can hold a civil office or be a member of the legiſlature.

Of the Government. By the conſtitution, adopted in 1790, the legiſlature conſiſts of two branches, called the general aſſembly. The houſe of aſſembly conſiſts of twenty-one members, choſen annually, ſeven from each county. The ſenate is compoſed of nine members, three from each county, elected for three years; one third renewed every year.

Qualifications. To be eligible to the senate, a man must be twenty-seven years of age—possess two hundred acres of land, or real and personal estate to the value of two thousand six hundred and sixty-six dollars and two thirds. The representatives must be twenty-four years old, and possess a freehold estate. Both must have been three years resident in the state. Two years residence and the payment of a tax assessed six months before the election, qualify a man to be an elector.

Of the Executive. The executive authority is vested in a governor, who is chosen for three years, and who can hold that office only three years in six. He has no council, and makes most of the appointments. He must be thirty years of age, must have been six years a citizen of the state, and twelve years a citizen of the United States.

Of the Judges. Judges of the courts are appointed by the governor, and hold their offices during good behavior. They are removable by impeachment, if two thirds of the house of representatives concur; and the governor may displace them, on the address of two thirds of the members of both houses. Their salaries cannot be diminished while in office.

Maryland.

Of the Situation of Maryland. Maryland lies in the thirty-eighth and thirty-ninth degrees of latitude, and extends from seventy-five degrees eight minutes to seventy-nine degrees thirty-eight minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. Maryland has the Atlantic and the state of Delaware, on the east; on the south and west, it is separated from Virginia by the Potomac, and a line from the south side of that river, at its entrance into the Chesopeak, due east to the Atlantic; on the north it is bounded by Pennsylvania.

Of the Extent. The length of Maryland is about one hundred and thirty miles, and the bredth, one hundred and ten. Its surface may be about fourteen thousand

square miles, containing almost nine millions of acres; but one fixth part is covered with water.

Of the Face of the Country. The surface of this state is variegated with hills, plains, bays, and rivers. The Chesopeak penetrates almost the whole state from south to north. From this extend many smaller bays and creeks in various directions. On the east is a low plain to the Atlantic—on the west, the country is generally level, except the counties at the north-western extremity of the state, which are diversified with hilly and mountainous tracts.

Of small Rivers. In addition to the Susquehanna, which enters the Chesopeak in Maryland, on the west, the Petapsco, which has its sources in Pennsylvania, enters the Chesopeak, just below Baltimore. The Patuxent proceeds from the northern part of the state and discharges into the same bay, about fifteen miles north of the Potomac. This is navigable for ships of burden about forty miles, and boatable twelve miles further. On the east are the Chester, the Choptank, the Nanticoke and the Pocomoke, all considerable rivers rising within or near the state of Delaware, and running south-west into the Chesopeak. They all furnish navigable water for many miles.

Of the Counties. Maryland contains nineteen counties besides the district of Columbia. On the peninsula, east of the bay, called the Eastern Shore, are eight counties—Cecil, Kent, Queen Anns, Caroline, Talbot, Somerset, Dorchester, and Worcester. On the west are eleven counties—Hartford, Baltimore, Ann Arundel, Frederic, Allegany, Washington, Montgomery, Prince George, Calvert Charles, St. Mary's.

Of the Inhabitants. The white inhabitants of Maryland are mostly descendants or emigrants from the British dominions, and a large part from Ireland. In 1790, the whites were two hundred and seventeen thousand—the slaves one hundred and three thousand. In 1800, the number of the slaves was one hundred and seven thou-

ſand, and the whites had multiplied to two hundred and forty-two thouſand.

Soil and Productions. The plains of Maryland are ſandy, but the land in the northern parts of the ſtate is moſtly a red clay or loam. The land produces all kinds of roots, plants and grain; but the ſtaple productions are wheat and tobacco.

Of the Commerce. The trade of Maryland conſiſts in the export of great quantities of wheat, flour, tobacco, maiz, pork, pig iron, lumber, and many commodities of leſs value. Large quantities of flour from the interior of Pennſylvania are carried to Baltimore and ſhipped for foreign markets. In 1800, the value of the exports exceeded twelve millions of dollars.

Of the Chief Towns. Baltimore is now the third town in population and trade in the United States. It lies on a ſmall arm of the river Petapſco, called the baſon, fifteen miles from the Cheſopeak, about one hundred and ſixty miles from the capes, and ſixty from the head of Elk river. The town lies in two diviſions. Weſt Baltimore has but four feet of water, when the tide is out—but at Fell's point, or Eaſt Baltimore, a mile below, is water for ſhips of burthen, and one of the beſt harbors in the United States.

Of the Progreſs of Baltimore. Before the revolution, Baltimore was an inconſiderable village; but its favorable ſituation for buſineſs and its ſafety from an enemy, were perceived during the war and it grew with great rapidity. Immediately after the war the ſtreets were paved, a large market was built and the town aſſumed the appearance of a rich commercial city. The ſame circumſtances have continued to operate in its favor. In 1785, it contained nineteen hundred and fifty houſes. In 1790, it contained thirteen thouſand five hundred inhabitants—in 1800, twenty ſix thouſand and five hundred. There are in Baltimore two banks, beſides a branch of the bank of the United States, and three inſurance companies.

Of Annapolis. Annapolis is ſituated on a ſmall river, called the Severn, near its junction with the Cheſapeak. It is on elevated ground, and commands a beautiful proſpect of the bay. It contains two or three hundred houſes, which are ſome of the largeſt and beſt built in the United States, the town being the ſeat of government and the reſidence of many wealthy families. The ſtate houſe which is large and elegant, ſtands on high ground, and from that the ſtreets diverge like rays of light in different directions.

Of Waſhington. Waſhington in the diſtrict of Columbia, is the ſeat of the national government. It is ſituated on the Patomac, and a river called the Eaſtern Branch, at the point of junction about four miles from Georgetown, and five from Alexandria, in Virginia, in thirty-eight degrees, and fifty-three minutes of north-latitude. The principal ſtreets are called avenues, and are named after the ſeveral ſtates. They croſs each other in various angles, and are from one hundred and ſixty to one hundred and thirty feet wide. The other ſtreets are from ninety to one hundred and ten feet wide. A branch of the United States bank is eſtabliſhed in this city.

Of the Buildings. The capitol, or houſe for the legiſlature, is placed on an eminence with a commanding proſpect. One mile from that, is the Preſident's houſe, on another eminence, and in full view. They are built of a beautiful white ſtone, from an iſland in the Patomac, forty miles below the city, a ſtone, which, when firſt taken from the quarry, is ſoft and eaſily wrought, but ſoon hardens in the air.

Of the Diſtrict of Columbia. The diſtrict of Columbia was laid out, in purſuance of an act of Congreſs of July 16, 1790, and of an additional act of March 3, 1791. It is ten miles ſquare, the center of which is near the center of Waſhington, and it extends ſo as to include Georgetown in Maryland, and Alexandria, on the Virginia ſide of the Patomac. It is ſubject to the ſole and immediate juriſdiction of Congreſs.

Of the Literary Institutions. The principal institutions for the education of youth, are, Washington academy, in Somerset county, instituted in 1779, Washington college at Chester, founded in 1782, St. John's college at Annapolis, founded in 1784, a college at Georgetown, instituted by the catholics, and Cokesbury college in Harford county, instituted by the methodists in 1785. There are private schools in many places; and private tutors in families; and many young men are sent for their education, either to Europe, or one of the colleges in the northern states.

Religious Denominations. Maryland was originally settled by catholics from Ireland, and these are a numerous denomination. But there are also episcopalians, presbyterians, methodists, quakers, and other less considerable denominations. All religious persuasions are indulged, without distinction; the rights of all are respected; and no religious test is required on admission to office, except a declaration in the belief of the christian religion. But no gift, sale or devise of real or personal estate to a minister of the gospel, as such, is valid, without the consent of the legislature.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Maryland, dated August 14, 1776, the legislature consists of two branches; a senate and house of delegates, which are stiled "the General Assembly." The annual session is on the first Monday in November at Annapolis.

Of the House of Delegates. The delegates are chosen by the freemen of the counties. They must be of age, residents in the county one year preceding the election, and possessed of real or personal estate to the value of thirteen hundred and thirty three dollars and a third.—Four are elected for each county. An elector must be of age; must reside in the county where he offers to vote; and possess fifty acres of land in that county, or possess property in the state to the value of eighty dollars, and *have resided* in the county a year. The votes are given *by the voice.*

Of the Senate. The senate consists of fifteen members, nine from the western and six from the eastern shore, who must be twenty-five years of age, of three years residence in the state, and possess real and personal property to the value of two thousand six hundred and sixty-six dollars and two thirds. They hold their seats for five years.

Of the Choice of Senators. The electors in the state chuse, on the first day of September, two persons in each county to be electors of the senate. The electors meet at Annapolis on the third Monday of the same month, and elect by ballot fifteen persons for senators.

Of the Executive. The governor of Maryland is chosen by the General Assembly on the second Monday of November. The two houses vote separately and by ballot, in case of an equal vote between two men, the election is determined by lot. The governor may be continued in office for three years; after which he cannot be elected for the four succeeding years. He has a council of five, to assist him in his duties.

Of the Judiciary. The supreme court of law, is called the "general court." The judges of this court, the chancellor, and all judges and justices, the attorney general, officers of the militia, and most other officers are appointed by the governor and council. The judges hold their office during good behavior.

Of the Powers of the Executive. The governor is commander in chief of the militia, and with consent of the council, he may embody them. He may grant reprieves and pardons, and during the recess of the assembly, may lay an embargo. He may also compel ships to ride quarantine, on strong grounds of suspicion that they are infected with a pestilential disease.

Of Sheriffs. The sheriffs are elected by ballot in the several counties, commissioned by the governor, and hold their office for three years. After that term they cannot be elected to the same office, until the expiration of four years. The sheriff must be of legal age and have prop-

erty in the county, to the value of twenty-six hundred and sixty-six dollars, and two thirds.

VIRGINIA.

Of the situation. Virginia extends from thirty-six degrees and a half to forty and a half, of north latitude, and from seventy-five degrees, fifty-four minutes to eighty three degrees eight minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. The Atlantic is the eastern boundary of Virginia; North-Carolina and Tennessee are its limits on the south; on the west, it is bounded by the great Sandy river, and a south line from that river to North-Carolina, which separates it from Kentucky; and on the north-west and north, by the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the Potomac.

Of the Extent. The utmost extent of Virginia is three hundred and fifty miles, by two hundred and twenty-five, but the average length and bredth are not more than three hundred and thirty miles by one hundred and seventy. These dimensions give fifty-six thousand and one hundred square miles, and thirty-five millions, nine hundred and four thousand acres. The actual number of acres is probably greater, on account of the mountains in the western part of the state; and perhaps a million of acres may be covered with water.

Of the Mountains. Vast ridges of mountains extend from north-east to south-west, through the interior of Virginia. The first great range, on the east, is the Blue Ridge, then the north mountain, Jackson's mountain, and some smaller elevations; then the highest and principal range, called the Allegany. On the west is the Laurel mountain, and finally the Cumberland, which bounds the state.

Of the Bays and Rivers. The great Chesopeak enters the land within Virginia, between the capes called, Cape Charles and Cape Henry. Into this bay are discharged *some of the* largest rivers in the United States, viz. the *Patomac, the* Rappahannoc, York, and Powhattan rivers. *These rivers* proceed from the mountains, and running a

south-eastern course, water immense tracts of country, and furnish navigable or boatable water to the very foot of the Allegany.

Of smaller Rivers. On the south, the Nansemond and Elizabeth rivers, which have their sources in and near the great swamp, called the Dismal, enter the bay near Norfolk. The Appomattox a considerable branch of the James, enters that river from the south-west, at Bermuda Hundred. This bears vessels of fifty tons to Petersburgh. On the north, are the Chickahominy and the Rivanna, two considerable tributary streams of the Powhattan. The Roanoke has its sources in Virginia. On the west of the mountains are the great Kanhaway, the Monongahela, and the Yohogany, which also have their sources in this state.

Of the Swamps. The most remarkable swamp in the United States is the Dismal Swamp, or Great Dismal, on the southern border of Virginia near the Atlantic. It is one extended bog of thirty miles by ten, and is the source of five considerable rivers. The soil sustains persons walking on it, but trembles under the feet. It is overgrown with reeds, briars, cypress, white cedar and an almost impenetrable thicket of shrubbery. In the midst of it is a large pond or lake.

Of Mount Vernon. On the western bank of the Patomac, nine miles below Alexandria, is the seat of the late general Washington. The house stands within fifty yards of the brink of a high steep bank, at a bend in the river, which affords a view of an extensive and delightful landskip. The house is large but more magnificent than elegant. On the west is a handsome bowling green, and on each side serpentine walks, bordered with trees; a flower garden on one side, and on the other, a kitchen garden. The position and the improvements all rendered it a charming retreat, and worthy of the illustrious proprietor.

Of the Climate. The eastern and southern parts of Virginia have a mild atmosphere, as they are near the Atlantic, and approach the latitudes where winter is rarely

known in severity. These parts are mostly level, and the waters are bordered with marshes, that expose the inhabitants to autumnal diseases. The interior and mountainous tracts have a colder atmosphere in winter, but dry and salubrious in summer. So mild are the winters in the southern part of the state, that the fig, the olive and the pomegranate will come to perfection, and from the first settlement of the country, cattle have subsisted, in common winters, on the grass and shrubs.

Of the Soil and Productions. The eastern and southern parts of the state are mostly sandy—the northern and western parts are clay, loam or gravel, the rivers are bordered with rich mold. The staple productions are wheat and tobacco; cotton is also raised for domestic use, and maiz forms the principal food of the slaves. Cyder and peach brandy are made in considerable quantities.

Of the Cattle and Horses. Great numbers of excellent cattle are raised in the western and mountainous parts of Virginia; where they have a wide range and subsist summer and winter in the woods, unless in very intemperate winters. Virginia is also remarkable for its breed of elegant horses, which is from England, and is cultivated with great care and expense.

Counties and Towns. Virginia is divided into eighty-two counties, two of which are on the eastern shore at the extremity of the peninsula. But the towns are not numerous nor large, the people being generally settled on plantations. Norfolk a Borough on the southern shore of the bay, just within the capes, is the chief commercial port, and contained in the year 1800, three thousand, five hundred whites, and three thousand blacks. Here is a branch of the bank of the United States.

Of other Considerable Towns. Williamsburg, between the York and Powhattan, formerly the seat of government is a pleasant town and contains a college. Richmond, on the northern bank of the Powhattan, and the present *seat of government* contained, in 1800, three thousand, *four hundred* and fifty whites, and two thousand three

hundred blacks. Peterſburg, on the Appomattox, is a place of conſiderable trade. Alexandria, on the bank of the Patomac, is a place of active thriving commerce, and here is eſtabliſhed a bank. Winchester, on the Opecan creek, one hundred and ten miles north-weſterly from Alexandria, is a conſiderable town, as is Frederickſburgh on the ſouth bank of the Rappahannoc, and Staunton, on a branch of the Patomac, one hundred miles ſouth-weſterly of Winchester.

Of the Inhabitants. Virginia was originally ſettled almoſt wholly by Engliſh people, who ſhow their deſcent by their character and language. The lands below the mountains are moſtly divided into ſeparate plantations, on which the proprietor reſides; and theſe are chiefly cultivated with ſlaves. The inhabitants in 1790, were, whites, five hundred and fifty-five thouſand—ſlaves, two hundred and ninety-two thouſand. In 1800, the whites were five hundred and forty thouſand; ſlaves, three hundred and forty-ſix thouſand.

Of the Militia. The military force of this ſtate is compoſed of four diviſions, nineteen brigades, ninety-one regiments, and fifty-ſix thouſand privates—all infantry.

Of Public Inſtitutions. An aſſociation for inſurance againſt loſſes by fire is eſtabliſhed, in this ſtate, which is very extenſive. A ſtate bank is eſtabliſhed at Richmond, with a capital of a million and a half of dollars, in which the ſtate is intereſted to the amount of one fifth. Branches of this bank are placed in Norfolk, Peterſburg and Frederickſburg.

Of the Commerce. Formerly the principal article of export was tobacco, of which from fifty to ſixty thouſand hogſheads were produced in a year. Within a few years, the planters have raiſed leſs tobacco, and more wheat. Of both theſe articles, and of flour and maiz, great quantities are exported. Lumber conſtitutes another chief article of export. The amount of exports in 1800, was about four millions and a half—in 1796, it roſe above ſive millions.

Seminaries of Learning. The college in Williamsburg, was founded during the reign of William and Mary, and called by their names. It was endowed by them with twenty thousand acres of land, and the proceeds of a duty of one penny on the pound of tobacco exported—with a duty on skins and furs exported, and liquors imported. It is under the government of twenty visitors, a president and professors in the most important branches of science. There is also a college in the county of Prince Edward, and academies in the principal towns, as well as numerous schools in other parts of the state.

Of the Religious Denominations. The religious denominations are chiefly presbyterians, episcopalians, baptists and methodists. All men are indulged in their religious opinions and worship, without the interference of law. From the scattered mode of settlement in this state, the churches are less numerous, than in the more northern states. Ministers of the gospel are incapable of being elected members of the legislature or privy council.

Of the Government. The legislature of Virginia, by an ordinance of the representatives of the state in convention, dated July 5, 1776, consists of two branches—a house of delegates, composed of two members for a county—and a senate composed of twenty-four members, chosen in districts. These houses constitute the General Assembly.—The senators hold their places for four years, one fourth being removed annually by rotation. The delegates are elected annually.

Of the Qualifications. No specific value of property is required to qualify a man for senator or delegate in Virginia; but both must be freeholders and residents in the district or county for which they are elected, and the senators must be twenty-five years of age. The electors also must be freeholders.

Of the Mode of enacting Laws. All bills for laws must originate in the house of delegates; but the senate may

propose amendments, except in money bills. The concurrence of both branches is necessary to constitute a law.

Of the Executive. A governor is annually chosen by the two houses of assembly, by ballot, each house voting separately. He may be continued in office for three years, and is then ineligible for four years in succession. To assist him in the administration, he has a privy council of eight members, chosen by joint ballot of the two houses, from their own number or the people at large. Two of their number are removed every three years by joint ballot of the two houses, and they remain ineligible for the three following years. A member of the council cannot sit in either house of assembly.

Of the Judiciary. The courts are, a supreme court of appeals, a general court, a court of chancery, and county courts. The judges and justices of the peace are appointed by joint ballot of both houses of assembly, and commissioned by the governor. The judges hold their offices during good behavior, and have fixed salaries. The sheriffs and coroners are nominated by the county courts, approved by the governor and council, and commissioned by the governor. Constables are appointed by the justices.

North-Carolina.

Of the Situation. North-Carolina is situated between thirty-three degrees fifty minutes—and thirty-six degrees thirty minutes of north latitude; and between seventy-six degrees and eighty-three degrees eight minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. This state has the Atlantic on the east, the state of South-Carolina on the south, Tennessee on the west, and Virginia on the north.

Of the Extent. The length of North-Carolina, east and west, is three hundred and fifty miles, and its bredth on an average, is about one hundred and fifty. The surface of the state therefore contains about fifty-two thousand

five hundred square miles, and upwards of thirty-three millions of acres.

Of the Mountains. The surface of North-Carolina, for more than a hundred miles from the ocean, is an extended sandy plain. West of that plain the land rises into hills and mountains, which are the continuation of the Allegany ridges, but in this state they are sometimes called the Appalachian mountains.

Of the Shore of North-Carolina. Almost the whole of this state is bordered with a bank of sand, nearly a mile in bredth. Within this is a channel called the Swash, which is navigable for small vessels. The principal passages or inlets through the beach are, Ocracoc, Roanoke, and Currituc, which admit vessels of some burden.

Of the Sounds. On the coast of North-Carolina are two large sounds or lakes. Albemarle sound, extending sixty miles from the sea, and of about ten miles in bredth, receives the waters of the Roanoke, and Chowan rivers. Pamptico sound is one hundred miles in length, and from ten to thirty in bredth. It receives the Nuse and the Tar, and communicates with the ocean by Ocracoc inlet.

Of the Capes. On the coast of this state are the capes Hatteras, Lookout, and Fear, all formidable to seamen. Hatteras is a point of land, or sand beach, extending far into the ocean; and beyond this is shoal water, for five or six leagues. On and near this cape, the weather is often tempestuous or squally, and remarkable for frequent thunder storms. To the southward are Cape Lookout and Cape Fear.

Of the Swamps. Between the Albemarle and Pamptico sounds, lies a vast bog, called the *Dismal*, similar to that on the border of the state of Virginia. It covers more than five hundred square miles, and three hundred thousand acres. It contains a lake of eleven miles by seven in extent, which is connected with a navigable river, entering Albemarle sound. A similar bog lies near the south line of the state, called Green Swamp, but of less extent.

Of the Climate and Soil. The flat lands from the ocean to the mountains, of nearly a hundred miles in extent, contain much barren sand, abounding with pines. On the banks of the rivers, the land is fertile, as it is in the interior and mountainous parts of the state.

Of the Staple Commodities. Wheat, tobacco, maiz and cotton are raised in great abundance; as well as the inferior sorts of grain. The cotton is planted yearly, as there is frost enough in winter to kill the stalks. The vast forests of the pitch pine furnish great quantities of turpentine, which is made into tar, and exported.

Of the Manufactures. The chief manufacture is that of cotton, for domestic clothing. Almost every family has a small plantation of cotton for its own consumption; and it is cleaned, spun and wove in private families. This constitutes the principal article of clothing for common use and for the slaves. In the interior of the state are several furnaces and forges for the manufacture of iron.

Of the Exports. The exports are, wheat, tobacco, maiz, turpentine, tar, pitch, lumber, and some smaller articles. The difficulty of entering the rivers in North-Carolina, and the unsafety of the harbors from the flatness of the country, and the consequent exposure to winds, prevents the establishment of any great mart in the state. A considerable part of the commodities are conveyed to a market, through Virginia and South-Carolina. The exports in 1800, amounted to the value of seven hundred and sixty-eight thousand dollars.

Of the Counties and Inhabitants. North-Carolina is divided into fifty-eight counties, which contained in 1790, two hundred and ninety-four thousand white inhabitants, and one hundred thousand slaves. In 1800, the inhabitants were four hundred and seventy-eight thousand, of whom one hundred and thirty-three thousand were slaves.

Of the Chief Towns. In this state, as in Virginia, the inhabitants mostly reside on plantations. There are no large towns; the principal are Edenton on the north side of *Albemarle sound*; Newbern, on the Nuse, at the con-

fluence of the Trent; Wilmington, on the eaſtern branch of Cape Fear river, which are places of trade. Halifax, on the Roanoke, ſix miles below the falls; Hillſborough, one hundred and eighty miles weſtward of Newbern, the preſent ſeat of government, and Fayettville, on the Cape Fear, a hundred miles above Wilmington—theſe are the chief towns, none of which contain more than four or five hundred houſes.

Of the State of Learning. In 1789 the legiſlature paſſed an act, incorporating a number of perſons, as truſtees of a univerſity to be eſtabliſhed, and funds were ſupplied for the purpoſe of erecting buildings. There is an academy at Warrenton, and a few others in the ſtate: but the education of all claſſes of people is not general. In 1803, however, the legiſlature paſſed an act for the eſtabliſhment of public ſchools.

Of the State of Religion. The chief religious denominations in the ſtate are, preſbyterians, epiſcopalians, methodiſts, baptiſts, quakers and moravians. By the conſtitution, perfect liberty of conſcience and worſhip is enjoyed, without diſtinction or preference. No perſon can be compelled to attend worſhip contrary to his faith or judgment; nor to contribute towards the building of a church or maintenance of a miniſter: nor can a miniſter of the goſpel while ſuch be a member of the legiſlature or council of ſtate. No perſon denying the being of a God, or the truth of the proteſtant religion, or of the ſcriptures, can hold any civil office.

Of the Government. By the conſtitution of the ſtate, eſtabliſhed December 18, 1776, the legiſlative authority is veſted in two branches, a *Senate* and a *Houſe of Commons*, which compoſe the *General Aſſembly*. The members are choſen by ballot annually; for the ſenate, *one* perſon in each county; for the commons, *two* perſons in a county, and one for Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillſborough and Halifax.

Of the Qualifications. A candidate for the ſenate muſt *have reſided* in the county he is to repreſent, one year,

and must possess during that time at least three hundred acres of land in fee. A candidate for the commons must also have resided a year in the county, and have possessed for six months, one hundred acres of land, in the county, either in fee or for life.

Of the Electors. All freemen of legal age, who have been inhabitants of any county in the state, for one year before the day of election, and who have for six months, possessed a freehold of fifty acres of land, in the same county, are entitled to vote for senators. To qualify a person to vote for a member of the commons, nothing more is necessary than a year's residence and payment of public taxes.

Of the Executive. The governor of North-Carolina is elected annually, by the joint ballot of the two houses of the legislature at their first meeting. He is eligible to that office only three years in six. He must be thirty years of age, a resident for five years in the state, and possess a freehold in lands and tenements, above the value of twenty-five hundred dollars.

Of the Council. The two houses, at their first annual meeting, chuse by joint ballot, seven persons, to be a council of state for one year, to advise and assist the governor in the duties of his office. They are to enter their proceedings in a journal, which is to be laid before the legislature, when called for.

Of the Judiciary and other Appointments. The General Assembly, by joint ballot of the houses appoint judges of the supreme courts of law and equity, and the attorney general, who are commissioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behavior. In the same manner are appointed all general and field officers of the militia, the treasurer and secretary. The justices of the peace are commissioned by the governor, on the recommendation of the representatives of the counties, and remain in office during good behavior.

Persons precluded from the Legislature. The following officers are precluded from a seat in the General Assem-

bly—clergymen—receivers of public monies, while in arrear to the ſtate—the treaſurer—officers in the army and navy—contractors and agents for ſupplying the army or navy—councillors of ſtate—judges of the ſupreme courts of law and equity—atheiſts and infidels.

Of the Powers of the Executive. The governor is commander in chief of the militia. He has power to draw from the treaſury, and apply ſuch money as the law directs, for the contingencies of the government. With advice of council, he may lay an embargo for thirty days, in the receſs of the aſſembly. He may grant pardons and reprieves, unleſs in caſes proſecuted by the general aſſembly; and in ſuch caſes until the next ſeſſion of that body. In caſe of his death, inability or abſence, his office may be exerciſed by the ſpeaker of the ſenate; or if this officer ſhould fail, by the ſpeaker of the commons.

SOUTH-CAROLINA.

Of the Situation. South-Carolina is ſituated within the thirty-third, fourth and fifth degrees of latitude; and extends from ſeventy-eight to eighty-three degrees of weſt longitude, running from the Atlantic nearly in a north-weſterly direction.

Of the Bounds. On the north, lies North-Carolina—on the eaſt the Atlantic—on the ſouth and weſt, the ſtate is divided from Tenneſſee and Georgia, by the Savanna and its head branches, the Tugulo and Chatuga.

Of the Extent. The bredth of this ſtate, on the Atlantic, is one hundred and ſixty miles, but is narrowed almoſt to a point on the weſt. Its average length may be two hundred and ten miles, and the bredth, one hundred and twenty, giving an area of more than twenty-five thouſand ſquare miles, and ſixteen millions of acres.

Of the Surface and Soil. On the Atlantic, is a ſandy plain, extending, in Carolina and Georgia, from thirty to forty miles from the ſea—then the land riſes for a few miles, by ſand hills or ridges two hundred feet or more above the level of the ſea; and another plain of more than fifty miles begins and extends weſtward. The ſoil

a light sandy loam, of about a foot deep on a stratum of clay. The land then rises by broken ridges, for a few miles, into a third plain of thirty or forty miles in extent, whose soil is loam, with a mixture of gravel. Then commence the mountainous tracts, which gradually rise for one hundred and fifty miles further.

Of the Climate. The state of South-Carolina occupies a region, where winter is scarcely known. Frost and snow appear occasionally, but are of short duration. The summers, in the flat country, are very inconveniently sultry. Near the marshy borders of the rivers and inlets, the air is humid, unelastic, and unhealthy; the human body is exhausted with heat and perspiration, especially during the night. The musketoes also are so vexatious, as to make it necessary to sleep under pavilions. The interior country enjoys a fine temperate salubrious air in summer, and the winter season is every where delightful.

Of the Productions. This state produces almost all the kinds of grain, fruits and plants which are found in the United States. The staple productions are cotton and rice. The cotton of the islands near the shore is of a fine long staple, and of the first quality. Wheat and maiz are produced in great abundance, with the inferior kinds of grain. Indigo is also cultivated to advantage. The apple does not thrive in this and other southern climates; but the tropical fruits, oranges, lemons, figs, and others, together with the finest melons and peaches, are the produce of this state.

Of the Division of the State. South-Carolina is divided into twenty-three districts, or precincts. Some of these are divided into counties or parishes. Charleston, Georgetown and Beaufort districts are situated on the sea coast, in what is called the lower country. These contain nineteen parishes. The other districts are in the interior country.

Of the Chief Towns. Charleston, the largest town in South-Carolina, is situated on a point of land at the junction of the rivers, Cooper and Ashley, which unite and

form a spacious harbor in front of the town. The land rises but a little above high water, and has more than once been overflowed by the water, when impelled into the harbor by a violent east wind. It is more healthy than the low country in its neighborhood, and on that account the planters often leave their estates and reside in the town in summer.

Of the Buildings and Inhabitants. The city of Charleston is well built, but its streets, except one, are narrow. They are in general regular, and have subterraneous drains. The houses are generally of brick, and many of them elegant. The public buildings are, an exchange, a state-house, a bank, an armory, an alms-house, an orphan's house, and the churches, which are twelve in number. The inhabitants in 1791, were sixteen thousand, almost one half blacks. In the year 1800, the number of free whites was eight thousand eight hundred and twenty —that of the slaves, nine thousand and fifty—which numbers, with the free blacks, made an aggregate of almost eighteen thousand inhabitants. In this city are two banks, besides a branch of the bank of the United States.

Of other Towns. On Winyaw bay, sixty miles north-easterly of Charleston is Georgetown, containing three or four hundred houses, and a place of some trade. Beaufort, on Port Royal Island, about forty miles south-west of Charleston, is a small but pleasant town. Columbia, the seat of government, but a small town, about one hundred and fifteen miles north-westerly of Charleston, is on the Congaree, just below the junction of the Broad and Saluda. To these may be added Camden, Cambridge, Purrysburg, and some others; but the inhabitants reside chiefly on plantations.

Of the Inhabitants of the State. South-Carolina was at first settled by English people; but it received considerable accessions, from Germany, Switzerland, Ireland, and *Scotland*; and was not a little aided in population by *French* protestants, who fled from persecution, near the *close of the* seventeenth century. In 1700, the colony did

not contain more than six thousand white inhabitants. In 1765, forty thousand whites, and double the number of blacks. In 1790, one hundred and forty-two thousand whites, and one hundred and seven thousand blacks. In 1800, nearly two hundred thousand whites, and a hundred and forty-six thousand blacks.

Manufactures. The value of the chief commodities of South-Carolina is such, that the planters find more profit in exporting them, and importing their cloths and furniture than in manufactures. In the interior country however, some cotton and woolen cloths are made in families for their own use, and this branch of business is growing. Near the Catawba is a rich vein of iron ore, and furnaces and forges are erected for separating and working the metal, in several of the interior districts, as in York, Spartanburg, Greenvill and Pendleton.

Commerce. The chief articles of export are cotton, rice, indigo, tobacco, deer skins, turpentine, tar, pitch, rosin, myrtle wax and lumber, with various inferior commodities. The cotton is exported to Great-Britain—the tobacco mostly to France. The amount of exports in 1800, was upwards of ten millions and a half of dollars. The principal seat of commerce, is Charleston.

Of the Seminaries of Learning. Gentlemen of property have been accustomed to send their sons and daughters to England for an education. Some of them send their sons to one of the colleges in the northern states. There are several institutions in the state, called colleges and academies—a college in Charleston; one at Winnsborough, in Camden district, one at Cambridge, and one at Beaufort, with considerable funds. There are several academies and schools in Charleston, Beaufort, and other parts of the state. The *South-Carolina College*, was incorporated in 1801, with an appropriation of fifty thousand dollars for erecting buildings in Columbia, and six thousand dollars yearly to maintain instructors.

Of the Religious Denominations. The religious persuasions are the same as in other states—presbyterians, epis-

copalians, baptists, methodists and others of less consideration. The free exercise of religious worship is guaranteed to all persuasions, without distinction; and no minister of the gospel, during the exercise of his pastoral functions is eligible to the office of governor, or to a seat in either house of the general assembly.

Of the Government. By the constitution, established June 3, 1790, the legislature consists of two houses, a senate and a house of representatives, called the general assembly. The senate is elected for four years, and the house of representatives for two. One half the senate is changed by rotation, every second year. For the purposes of electing members of both houses, the state is divided into convenient districts, and elections are by ballot.

Of the Qualifications of Senators. To be eligible to a seat in the senate, a person must be a free white male, thirty years of age, a citizen or resident in the state five years; and if a resident in the district, where elected, he must possess an unincumbered freehold estate of the value of thirteen hundred and thirty-three dollars and a third—if a non-resident, he must possess a clear freehold estate in the district, of four thousand four hundred and forty-four dollars and forty-four cents.

Of the Qualifications of a Representative. To qualify a person for a seat in the house of representatives, he must be a free white male, of legal age, a citizen and resident in the state for three years. If a resident in the district, he must possess a freehold of five hundred acres of land and ten negroes; or of the value of six hundred sixty-six dollars and two thirds, free of debt. If a non-resident, he must own a freehold estate of the clear value of twenty-two hundred twenty-two dollars and twenty-two cents.

Of the Qualifications of the Electors. To be a qualified elector, a man must be of age, a citizen of the state, and a resident for two years—he must have a freehold of fifty acres of land, or a town lot, of which he has been seized *for six* months before the election, or if he has no such *estate, he must* have resided in the district six months, and

paid a tax of two thirds of a dollar towards the support of government.

Of the Executive. The governor is chosen by the joint ballot of the two houses of the Legislature, and continues in office for two years, and until another is chosen. He must be thirty years of age, and a resident and citizen of the state for ten years preceding his election. He must also possess a settled estate of the value of six thousand six hundred sixty-six dollars and two thirds. Having served for two years, he cannot be again elected, until the end of four years. A lieutenant governor is also chosen, with the same qualifications.

Of the Judiciary. The judges of the superior courts, commissioners of the treasury, secretary of state, and surveyor general are elected by the joint ballot of the two houses of the legislature—The judges hold their offices during good behavior. All officers are commissioned by the governor.

Of the Militia. The militia of the state consists of two divisions, nine brigades, forty-six regiments, and twenty-eight thousand infantry; and a body of cavalry, artillery and riflemen.

Georgia.

Of the Situation of Georgia. Georgia lies between the middle of the thirty-first degree of north latitude, and the beginning of the thirty-sixth; and it extends from the eightieth degree of west longitude to the middle of the eighty-fifth.

Of the Bounds. Georgia has the Savanna on the north, the Atlantic on the east, the St. Mary and the boundary line of the United States on the south, adjacent to Florida; and on the west, the river Apalachicola or Chatahoochy.

Of the Extent. Georgia has about one hundred miles of sea coast, but spreads like a fan towards the western boundary. Its surface, if regular would form a figure of two hundred miles north and south, by two hundred and

fifty east and west, containing fifty thousand square miles, and thirty-two millions of acres.

Of the Face of the State and Soil. The face of this state resembles that of South-Carolina, which has been described; being sandy near the Atlantic, and rising westward into hills and mountains. But the southern side of the state is nearly level. The soil of the low country is sandy, except on the rivers; a more generous soil is found in the western parts of the state and upon the islands.

Of the Rivers. The Savanna washes the northern side of Georgia—the Altamahaw penetrates the state—these, with their various branches, and the smaller rivers, the St. Mary, the two Satillas, Ogeechy, and numerous creeks, water the state and facilitate the transportation of commodities.

Of the Climate. Georgia lies in a region of the earth where winter is scarcely known. Frost and snow are rare occurrences, and are not considerable, except in winters of unusual severity. The flat lands on the borders of rivers and the ocean are subject to autumnal fevers; but the hilly country enjoys, as in every part of the world, a temperate and salubrious air.

Of the Productions. The productions of Georgia are the same as those of South-Carolina—cotton, rice, tobacco, maiz, wheat, the inferior species of grain, and all the tropical fruits. The Atlantic shore of this state and of South-Carolina, is faced with islands, which were originally covered with live-oak, the best of ship timber, but as these islands produce the finest cotton, the planters are destroying the timber, to convert the land into cotton plantations.

Of the Counties and Towns. Georgia is divided into twenty-four counties. The chief towns are Savanna, on the river of that name, which is the principal commercial port. It contained in 1800, five thousand one hundred and fifty persons, nearly half of them blacks. Augusta, on the Savanna also, one hundred and twenty-seven miles, north-west from Savanna; Louisville, on the Ogeechy,

the ſeat of government, one hundred miles north-weſtward of Savanna; and Sunbury, on the ſea ſhore, forty miles ſouth of Savanna; and a few other places have conſiderable ſettlements.

Of the Inhabitants. In 1790, the inhabitants were, whites, fifty-three thouſand—blacks, twenty-nine thouſand. In 1800, one hundred and three thouſand whites, and ſixty thouſand ſlaves. They are of the uſual religious denominations.

Of the Militia. The militia of this ſtate conſiſts of two diviſions, ſeven brigades, twenty regiments, and twenty-eight thouſand rank and file of infantry, beſides a reſpectable body of cavalry, artillery and riflemen.

Of the Commerce. Some of the productions of Georgia are among the richeſt articles of export, eſpecially cotton, the fineſt ſpecies of which grows on the iſlands that border the ſea coaſt. The other conſiderable articles are, rice, tobacco, lumber, deer ſkins, maiz, live ſtock, and many inferior articles. The exports in 1800, amounted to more than two millions of dollars.

Of the Literary Inſtitutions. The legiſlature of Georgia have founded and endowed a college at Louiſville. There are alſo ſome ſchools in the ſtate. A law of the ſtate has incorporated a number of literary gentlemen, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing and ſuperintending ſeminaries of learning—fifty thouſand acres of land are appropriated for funds, for this univerſity—and a ſum of money in each county for maintaining an academy. The funds deſtined by Mr. Whitfield to maintain an orphan houſe, and by him bequeathed to the counteſs of Huntingdon, in truſt, are veſted in commiſſioners to ſupport a college called by her name.

Of the Government. By the conſtitution of Georgia, formed in May 1795, the legiſlative power is lodged in two houſes, a ſenate and a houſe of repreſentatives, appointed annually, and called the *general aſſembly*. The ſenate conſiſts of twenty-three members; the other houſe of *fifty-one*.

Of the Qualifications. A ſenator muſt be twenty-eight years of age, an inhabitant of the United States for nine years, and three years a citizen of Georgia—he muſt have been ſix months reſident in the county, and poſſeſs property to the amount of eleven hundred and eleven dollars, or two hundred and fifty acres of land.

Of the Qualifications of the Repreſentatives and Electors. A repreſentative muſt be of age, ſeven years a citizen of the United States, two years an inhabitant of Georgia, and reſident in the county three months. He muſt poſſeſs a freehold of two hundred acres of land, or eſtate to the value of ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix dollars and two thirds. A man is qualified for an elector by the payment of a tax and ſix months reſidence in the county.

Of the Executive. The chief magiſtrate or governor, in Georgia, is choſen by the legiſlature, for two years, and is re-eligible. To entitle a perſon to hold the office, he muſt have been a citizen twelve years, and reſident ſix years in the ſtate. He muſt poſſeſs five hundred acres of land, and other property worth four thouſand four hundred and fourty-four dollars.

Of the Judiciary and Military. The judges of the courts are appointed by the legiſlature for three years, but may be re-appointed. The military officers are appointed by the governor.

KENTUCKY.

Of the Situation. Kentucky extends from the middle of the thirty-ſixth degree of north latitude, to the beginning of the fortieth—and from the eighty-third to the ninetieth degree of weſt longitude. It was formerly a part of Virginia, and became one of the United States, by act of congreſs, on the firſt day of June 1792.

Of the Bounds. Kentucky is bounded on the north by the Ohio; on the eaſt by Sandy river and a line due ſouth from its ſource to the border of North-Carolina, acroſs the Cumberland mountain; on the ſouth by the middle of

the thirty fixth degree of latitude, adjoining to the ſtate of Tenneſſee.*

Of the Extent. The utmoſt length of this ſtate exceeds three hundred and fifty miles, but the average of the length may be ſtated at two hundred and fifty miles, and of the bredth, at one hundred and fifty; which gives an area of thirty-ſeven thouſand five hundred ſquare miles, and twenty-four millions of acres.

Of the Mountains. On the eaſtern ſide of the ſtate, are the great ridges of mountains which run parallel with the Allegany, or detached elevations, which may be conſidered as ſpurs projecting from thoſe ridges. From theſe mountains proceed the great rivers of the ſtate. Other mountains, hills or broken lands, are found in other parts of the ſtate.

Of the Rivers. On the north, this ſtate is waſhed by the noble river, Ohio; on the ſouth is the Cumberland, a large navigable river; in the interior are the Kentucky, the Licking, and Green river—all conſiderable ſtreams. The branches of theſe and many ſmaller ſtreams, waſh and fertilize the ſtate of Kentucky.

Of the Climate. It is generally agreed that the climate of the territory on the weſt of the great mountains of the United States is more mild and ſubject to fewer viciſſitudes of cold and heat, calm and tempeſtuous weather, than the climates of the ſame latitudes on the Atlantic coaſt. The ſummers in Kentucky are temperate; and the winters in general very mild, froſt and ſnow being rare and of ſhort duration.

Of the Counties and Towns. This ſtate is divided into forty-two counties. The chief towns are Lexington, on a branch of the Elkhorn, a ſtream that diſcharges into the Kentucky, Frankfort on the Kentucky, the ſeat of Government, and Louiſville on the Ohio. The inhabitants, in 1791, were ſixty one thouſand whites, and twelve thouſand ſlaves—in 1800, one hundred and eighty-one thouſand

* *Kentucky was firſt* ſettled by Colonel Boon in 1773, erected into an independent ſtate in 1790, and admitted into the union in 1792.

whites and forty thousand slaves. The militia, in 1802, amounted to twenty-seven thousand men.

Of the Soil and productions. The state of Kentucky contains a great variety of soil, but in general is fertile and produces all sorts of grain, plants and fruits, suited to the climate. The principal productions, are wheat, maiz, tobacco, hemp, barley, oats, rye, pork and beef. The salt licks furnish salt, the maple supplies sugar, spirits are distilled from grain, the rivers abound with fish, and the woods, with buffaloes and deer.

Of the Commerce. Kentucky enjoys great advantages for internal navigation; but is remote from any convenient port for foreign trade. Its wheat, flour, tobacco, pork, beef, skins, lumber, and other commodities are easily transported down the great rivers to the Mississippi, and on that river to New-Orleans, but the difficulty of ascending that rapid winding river, impedes or renders expensive the importation of bulky foreign articles, and no small part of the foreign goods consumed in that state, are transported from Philadelphia and Baltimore.

Of the state of Learning and Religion. Provision has been made by law for founding and maintaining a college; and schools are established in different parts of the state. The people are of various denominations; and the methodists are very numerous. Universal freedom is allowed to religious opinion and worship; but no person can be compelled to maintain or attend public worship.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Kentucky established April 19, 1792, the legislature consists of two branches, a senate and house of representatives, chosen by ballot, and denominated the General Assembly.

Of the Representatives. The representatives are chosen annually by the qualified voters in the several counties. They must be twenty-four years of age; citizens and inhabitants of the state for two years, and for six months preceding the election inhabitants of the counties for which they are chosen.

Of the Senators. The Senators are chosen by electors for four years. The qualified voters choose in each county, a number of persons equal to the number of representatives to which the county is entitled. These are the electors of the senators. They must be twenty-seven years of age, and have resided in the state three years. The senators must have attained the same age and been resident in the state for two years.

Of the Voters. All free male citizens of legal age, who have resided in the state for two years, or in the county in which they offer to vote, one year before the election, are qualified to vote for representatives and electors.

Of the Executive. The governor of Kentucky is chosen by the electors of the Senate, at the time and place of chusing senators, and he holds his office likewise for four years. He must be thirty years of age, and have been a citizen and an inhabitant of the state for two years. He has power to remit fines and forfeitures, and to grant pardons and reprieves. In case of death or resignation, his office devolves on the speaker of the senate.

Of the Judiciary. The judicial power is lodged in a supreme court and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The judges are appointed by the governor and senate and hold their offices during good behavior but may be removed by the governor, on the address of two thirds of both branches of the General Assembly.

Of other Officers. Sheriffs and coroners are elected by the citizens, and hold their offices for three years, but are not eligible for the succeeding three years. The treasurer is appointed by the joint ballot of both houses of the legislature. Field and staff officers of the militia are appointed by the governor, except battalion staff officers who are appointed by the field officers of each battalion. Most of the civil officers are appointed by the governor and senate.

Tennessee.

Of the Situation. Tenneſſee is ſituated in the thirty-fifth and thirty-ſixth degrees of north latitude, and extends from the middle of the eighty-ſecond degree, to the Miſſiſippi, in the ninety-ſecond degree of weſt longitude.

Of the Bounds. This ſtate has North-Carolina on the eaſt, the Miſſiſippi territory on the ſouth, Kentucky on the north, and the Miſſiſippi on the weſt. It was formerly a part of North-Carolina; ceded by that ſtate to congreſs in 1789, and formed into a ſtate, and received into the union in 1796.

Of the Extent. The length of Tenneſſee is about three hundred and fifty miles, and the bredth one hundred. Its area is therefore about thirty-five thouſand ſquare miles, containing upwards of twenty-two millions of acres.

Of the Mountains. On the eaſt, are the different ridges which are a continuation of the mountains in Virginia—ſome of them of ſtupendous ſize and elevation. The chief are the Stone mountain, the Yellow, the Iron, the Bald, the Clinch and Cumberland. The latter penetrates into the center of the ſtate. The mountains are numerous and many of them not capable of cultivation.

Of the Rivers. The Tenneſſee river, from which the ſtate is named, is one of the largeſt rivers in the United States. It proceeds from the mountains on the eaſt, and winding between the vaſt ridges of the Cumberland mountain on one ſide, and the Bald and Iron mountains on the other, finds its way to the Ohio. It is navigable for ſhips of burden, two hundred and fifty miles, to the Muſle ſhoals, and boatable nine hundred miles to Tellico block-houſe. The chief branches of this river, are the Clinch, the Holſton, the French, Broad and Duck rivers. The Cumberland enters this ſtate on the north, and waters a large tract of land; then re-enters Kentucky.

Of the Climate and Soil. Tenneſſee enjoys a very mild and temperate climate; and is diſtinguiſhed for the ſalubrity of its air. The ſoil, except the barren and inacceſſible mountains, is generally fertile; producing all the ſpe-

cies of grain, plants, roots, and fruits, which are found in similar latitudes.

Of the chief Productions. The staple commodities are cotton, wheat, and maiz, which are very productive.—The soil is covered with timber of the best kinds—the rivers abound with fish—the forests with buffaloes, deer, and other animals, and the country is well furnished with salt springs, iron ore, sulphur, saltpeter and lead.

Of the Counties and Towns. Tennessee is laid out into six districts, and in 1800, there were eighteen counties. The principal towns are Knoxvill on the Holston, which is the seat of government, and Nashvill on the Cumberland, which was named after General Nash, who fell in the battle of Germantown, and is the seat of the courts in Mero district.

Of the Inhabitants. The first settlers of Tennessee were emigrants from the western settlements in Pennsylvania and Virginia. A few families attempted a settlement in 1754, but were driven away or destroyed. The first effectual attempt was in 1765, on the Watauga, a branch of the Holston. The number of inhabitants in 1795, was seventy-seven thousand persons: in 1800, the number was one hundred and six thousand, of which thirteen thousand five hundred were slaves.

Of the Commerce. By means of the Tennessee and Cumberland, navigation is opened from the Mississippi into the inland parts of this state; and the cotton, wheat, flour, tobacco, skins and lumber may be easily transported to New-Orleans. The only port of entry in the state is Palmyra.

Of the Learning and Religion. Several schools are established in this state, and by law, provision is made for three colleges. There is also a society for promoting useful knowledge. The inhabitants are of various religious denominations, of which the presbyterians are said to be the most numerous. Ministers of the gospel are precluded from a seat in the legislature; and no person denying the being of a God, and a future state of rewards and punishment, can hold any civil office.

Of the Government. By the conſtitution of Tenneſſee, eſtabliſhed February 6, 1796, the legiſlature conſiſts of two branches, a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, choſen for two years, and called the General Aſſembly.

Of the Qualifications. The ſenators and repreſentatives are elected in diſtricts, and muſt be of lawful age; muſt poſſeſs two hundred acres of land, in the county in which he is choſen, and muſt have reſided three years in the ſtate, and one year in the county. The electors muſt be of age, poſſeſs a freehold in the county, and be inhabitants of the ſtate; and inhabitants in the county ſix months before the election.

Of the Executive. The executive power is lodged in a governor choſen by the people who muſt be twenty-five years of age; poſſeſſed of a freehold of five hundred acres of land, and have been a citizen or inhabitant of the ſtate, for four years. He holds his office for two years, but cannot hold it more than ſix years in eight. He has power to grant pardons and reprieves after conviction. In caſe of his death, reſignation or removal, his place is ſupplied by the ſpeaker of the ſenate.

Of the Judiciary. The judicial power is veſted in ſuch courts as the legiſlature may eſtabliſh. The judges of law and equity, and the attornies of the ſtate, are appointed by the joint ballot of both houſes, and hold their offices, during good behavior. The judges of the ſuperior court receive a fixed ſalary, and no fees or perquiſites. Sheriffs, coroners and conſtables are appointed by the county courts.

Of other Officers. The treaſurer of the ſtate is appointed by the legiſlature, for two years. The ſoldiers in a company chuſe the captains and inferior officers. The ſoldiers in a county, elect field officers. Brigadier generals are choſen by the field officers of their reſpective brigades; and major generals, by the brigadiers and field officers of the diviſions. The adjutant general is appointed by the *governor.*

Ohio.

Of the situation of the State of Ohio. The state of Ohio lies between the western limit of Pennsylvania, and a meridian line drawn from the mouth of the Great Miami, to its northern limit, which limit is an east and west line touching the southernmost part of the lake Mishigan. On the south it is washed by the river Ohio from which it derives its name.

Of the Extent. Ohio extends from a few minutes west of the eightieth degree of longitude, about five degrees, and from about the middle of the thirty-ninth degree of latitude, to the forty-third. Its length from east to west, is two hundred and twenty-three miles; its breadth on the western border is two hundred and fifteen miles and on the eastern, one hundred and sixty-five. Its mean bredth is one hundred and ninety miles. It contains forty-two thousand five hundred square miles, and more than twenty-seven millions of acres.

Of the Face of the State. The south-eastern part of Ohio consists of hilly land, interspersed with rich intervals or bottoms. The middle and western parts from the Sciota are a level country, very fertile and abounding with prairies, or flat lands destitute of wood. The hilly parts are esteemed the most healthy. There are no elevations which deserve the name of mountains, and it it noted that the rough broken lands are all adjacent to the rivers.

Of the Rivers. The chief rivers are the Big Beaver, Muskingum, Sciota, Great Miami, Little Miami, and Hockhocking, which discharge their waters into the Ohio; the St. Joseph which falls into Mishigan; the Sandusky, and the Cayohoga, which fall into Erie: but there are many other streams. During the summer, this state, like all level countries, suffers from a failure of the streams, which become very low, and nearly stagnant. Nor do the rivers furnish falls of water for good mill seats in convenient abundance.

Of the Soil, Productions and Minerals. The soil of this state is for the most part, a loam, or light earth, on a bot-

tom of clay. Few parts are ſtony. The ſoil is very rich, producing luxuriant crops of maiz and other grains. The wood, native vegetables, and cultivated fruits are the ſame in this ſtate, as in others under the ſame parallels of latitude. Salt ſprings ſupply the inhabitants with ſalt; coal, alum, and niter have been found in abundance, as has the ſulphuret of iron. Iron ores are found in detached ſituations; but not in quantities ſufficient to ſupply a furnace, or to juſtify the erection of one.

Of the Civil Diviſions of the State. Ohio is divided into eighteen counties, which for the diſtribution of juſtice, are formed into three circuits; the firſt conſiſting of Butler, Hamilton, Montgomery, Warren, Green and Clermont; the ſecond of Adams, Sciota, Gallia, Roſs, Franklin, Fairfield, and Muſkingum; the third, of Waſhington, Belmont, Jefferſon, Columbiana, and Trumbull.

Of the Towns. The chief towns are Chilicotha, Marietta, and Cincinnati. Chilicotha is the ſeat of government. It is upon the weſt bank of the Sciota, about forty miles from its confluence with the Ohio, and eighty miles weſtward of Marietta. Marietta is a pleaſant and thriving town, at the junction of the Muſkingum with the Ohio, on a plain ſurrounded by hills at a mile's diſtance. It conſiſts of about one hundred houſes. Cincinnati, is upon the bank of the Ohio, a thriving town in a fertile country, containing one hundred and fifty houſes.

Of other Towns. Stubenvill, on the Ohio, twenty-five miles above Wheeling; Laneſvill, at the confluence of Licking and the Muſkingum; Lancaſter, near the head of the Hockhocking; Bellvill eight miles from Marietta; and Galliopolis, on the Ohio, a little below the Great Kanhaway, a French ſettlement; are the principal towns and villages. The free male inhabitants, in 1803, were found by a cenſus to be fifteen thouſand, four hundred and fifteen.

Of the original Settlers. The ſouthern and weſtern parts of Ohio were ſettled by emigrants from New-Jerſey and Pennſylvania; the diſtrict between the Sciota and Little Miami, known by the name of Virginia Military Reſerve,

tion, was settled chiefly from Virginia and Kentucky. A number of Germans have planted themselves on the fertile lands about the sources of the Hockhocking. The Ohio company's purchase and the county of Trumbull are peopled by natives of New-England, and the district between Washington and Trumbull has been planted by Pennsylvanians.

Of the Natives. In the year 1790, this tract of country, now Ohio, contained twenty thousand Indians. By means of wars, diseases, and the settlements made by civilized men, who level the woods, drive away the game, and compel the savages to seek subsistence in western forests, the number is reduced to three or four hundred.—These are the remains of the Shawanees, Delawares and Wyandots; with two insignificant villages on the Sandusky. The title of the natives to some of the western parts of this state is not yet extinguished.

Of Curiosities. Within this state as in other transalleganean districts, are seen the remains of regular fortifications, consisting of a wall or rampart of earth, from three to five feet high, and rectangular. Trees of a great size are now growing on the walls. By whom, or at what period, these works were raised, it is impossible to determin, nor do the traditions of the Indians furnish any light on the subject. Near these works, are pyramidical mounts of earth, from thirty to a hundred feet high; supposed to be raised as tombs, or repositories of the bones of the dead.

History of Ohio. The settlement in this state commenced soon after the revolution, under grants to certain individuals and companies, as at Marietta, Cincinnati and Galliopolis. After the sale of the Western Reserve, so called, by the state of Connecticut, the proprietors encouraged numerous emigrations from the eastern states and a rapid increase of population succeeded. Until the year 1802, this state was a part of the North-Western Territory, and governed by special ordinances of congress. In 1802, the inhabitants had become so numerous as to be entitled to form themselves into a state. A convention was accordingly held, a constitution formed, and at th

next session of congress, the state of Ohio took its place as a member of the union.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Ohio, the legislature consists of two branches, a senate and house of representatives. The latter house is limited to seventy-two members. The senators cannot exceed one half, nor be less than a third of the number of the representatives. The electors are all the white male inhabitants of age and of one years residence in the state. The senate is divided into two classes, one of which goes out of office every year.

Of the Executive. The executive power is lodged in a governor who is chosen by the electors, once in two years. He is commander in chief of the militia, grants reprieves and pardons, and fills the offices which become vacant during the recess of the legislature.

Of the Judiciary. The judiciary consists of a supreme court of three judges, with cognizance of cases in law and equity, and power to correct the errors of inferior courts, —of courts of common pleas, consisting of a president and three associate judges, who have civil jurisdiction in causes of above twenty dollars demand, subject to an appeal in causes of more than one hundred dollars demand; and criminal jurisdiction in all cases under the degree of felony. The judges of these courts are appointed by the legislature, and hold their offices for seven years. To these are added justices of the peace, who are chosen by the people for three years.

Mississippi Territory.

Of the Situation and Extent. The territory belonging to the United States, south of Tennessee, lies between 31 and 35 degrees of north latitude, and between the Catahochy in the eighty-fifth, and the Mississippi in the ninety-second degree, of west longitude. Its mean extent, east *and west*, is about three hundred miles, and its bredth, *north and south*, two hundred and seventy-five; the area *therefore* contains more than fifty-two millions of acres.

Face of the Country. Except the branches or ſpurs of the Alleganean ridges, which terminate in the northern and eaſtern parts of this territory, the land is moſtly level, and covered with the trees common to the latitudes. On the rivers, are extenſive flats, of rich land, many of which are clothed with canes of a great ſize, which form an almoſt impenetrable thicket.

Of the Rivers. This territory is waſhed on the weſt by the great river Miſſiſippi, and on the eaſt by the Catahoochy, which is a large navigable ſtream. Near the center, the country is penetrated by the large ſtreams which enter Mobill bay, which are the Alabama, which is formed by the united ſtreams of the Cooſaw and Tallapoſy, both which are conſiderable ſtreams, and the Tombigby, another large ſtream from the north-weſt: forty miles weſt of Mobill, is the Paſcagola, a ſtream that is boatable more than one hundred miles. Sixty miles weſt is Pearl river, about the ſize of the Paſcagola. About ſixty miles further weſt is the Amit, a ſtream which enters the Ibbervill channel, and carries boats about one hundred miles. Theſe, with many ſmaller ſtreams, have their ſources in the Miſſiſippi territory, and run ſouth into the bay of Mexico. The Yazoo is a conſiderable river which enters the Miſſiſippi.

Of the Settlements. The Indian title to this great body of land, is not extinguiſhed, except the title to two tracts—one of a million and half of acres, on the Miſſiſippi, below the Yazoo—and another tract of equal extent between the Paſcagola and Tombigby. On theſe tracts are the only ſettlements. The principal town is Natchez, ſituated on the bank of Miſſiſippi, in latitude 31 degrees, 30 north. This town, ſo called from a tribe of Indians, was ſettled by the French in 1727. In 1731, the ſettlers were moſtly maſſacred by the Indians, which occaſioned a deadly war in which the tribe was almoſt wholly deſtroyed.

Of the Government and Population. The Miſſiſippi Territory is governed by a ſpecial ordinance of congreſs, and the governor, who is appointed by the preſident, reſides at

Natchez. In the year 1800, the whole population fell short of nine thousand souls, except Indians; several tribes of which reside on this territory and own the land.

Indiana.

Of the Territory called Indiana. That part of the United States which lies westward of the state of Ohio, extending to the Mississippi, and from the river Ohio northward to the northern limit of the United States, is called Indiana, and governed by a special ordinance of congress. This tract of country, which is of great extent, contains the large rivers Waubash and Illenois, with a great number of others, and a vast body of excellent land. The chief settlements are on the Waubash, Kaskaskia and at Mackinaw.

Mishigan Territory.

That part of the United States which lies north of a line drawn east from the southern extremity of lake Mishigan until it intersects lake Erie, and east of a line from the said extremity northerly through the middle of the Mishigan to the northern limit of the United States, and west of the state of New-York, is erected into a separate district for the purposes of government. This territory is governed by a special ordinance of congress. The governor is appointed by the president, and resides at Detroit, the principal settlement in the territory. In the summer of 1805, this town consisting of 300 houses was all reduced to ashes; but is now rebuilt on a more secure and elegant plan.

Louisiana.

Of the Discovery of the Mississippi. The great river Mississippi, as has been related, was first discovered in 1541, by a Spanish adventurer, Ferdinand de Soto, who, with twelve hundred soldiers, landed in Florida, in 1539, penetrated to the Chickasaw country in search of gold and silver; then crossed the Mississippi, and advanced westward

a considerable distance, where he died—and his surviving followers, returning, sailed down the river and proceeded to Mexico. This river was also discovered by a colonel Wood in 1654, and by a captain Bolt in 1670.

Of the French Claim to the Country on the Mississippi. The French in Canada, very early imbibed an idea of the practicability of opening a communication, between Canada and the bay of Mexico, by means of some river. To ascertain this point, the French king gave orders to La Salle to explore the country. This man in 1682 or 3, went down the Mississippi to its mouths, and returned to Canada, having ascertained the desired communication. Elated with this discovery, he went to France, and by a representation of the advantages of the Mississippi for opening a vast trade with Canada and the western country, a company was soon formed to colonize the banks of the river.

Of the first Attempt to settle on the River. The adventurers, under La Salle, embarked in four vessels, but were carried beyond their intended port, and in February 1684, began a settlement at Bernard's bay, a hundred leagues westward of the Mississippi. Many of the settlers perished by diseases and hardships; and in 1687, as La Salle was exploring the interior country, two of his followers murdered him, and his projected establishment failed. After the peace of Ryswic in 1697, the king of France sent a French naval officer, named Iberville, with a small number of men, to erect a fort and keep possession of the country. This officer effected the object, and founded a permanent settlement on the bank of the Mississippi in 1698. He returned to France to procure supplies a first and a second time, but died on his third voyage. From him was named the channel of communication between the river and the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain.

Of the Grant to Crozat. In 1712, the king of France granted to a wealthy citizen by the name of Crozat, the exclusive right to trade, for fifteen years, on the Mississippi and the adjacent territory. In this grant, the territory is named from him, Louisiana, or the country of Lewis, and

described within the following boundaries; on the north, the lake Illenois; on the east, the lands of the English in Carolina; on the south, the bay of Mexico; and on the west, New-Mexico. These orders, discoveries and public acts, constituted the whole of the original title of France to Louisiana. The grant to Crozat interfered with the charters given by the king of England, to several of the colonies, which extended from the Atlantic to the western ocean. This grant also unfolded the object of the French king, which was to unite Louisiana to Canada, and to comprehend in his dominions, all the territory westward of the Allegany mountains.

Of the Mississippi Company. In 1717, a company was formed in France to carry on an extensive trade to Louisiana, which company embarked in the scheme of John Law to pay off the national debt of France, by a bank. To forward the views of this company, Crozat resigned his patent, and the exclusive trade to the Mississippi was vested in an association, called the company of the west. This company undertook to enlarge the settlement on the Mississippi, and in 1720, was laid out the town of New-Orleans. The scheme of the company failed with the ruin of the royal bank in France, but the settlements on the Mississippi continued in possession of France, till the year 1762, though the increase of population was extremely slow.

Of the Changes of its Sovereigns. While the French settlements were confined to the banks of the Mississippi, they excited but little jealousy in the British nation. But about the year 1752, the French began to assert an exclusive right to the lands on the Ohio, and intercepted the colonial traders in their commerce with the Indians.—Soon after, they erected a fort, at the confluence of the Ohio and Monongahela, where Pittsburg now stands.—This step and various other movements alarmed the British ministry, and to check the dangerous encroachments of the French, war was declared which ended in the subjection of Canada to the British crown. At the close of this war in 1762, France, by a secret convention, ceded Louisiana, includ-

ing New-Orleans, to Spain. In the following year, by the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France, the whole of Florida from the Atlantic to the middle of the Ibbervill and the Miſſiſippi, was ceded to Great Britain, and in this ſtate continued theſe territories till the revolution.

Of Diſturbances in Louiſiana. After the ceſſion of Louiſiana to the Spaniſh crown, the inhabitants remained a long time without any knowledge of that event. In 1766, Don Ulloa, a Spaniſh agent, arrived at New-Orleans, and the next year, a body of Spaniſh troops from Havanna; but this officer, for want of orders, neglected to take formal poſſeſſion of the country, while he proceeded to erect forts, eſtabliſh monopolies, and reſtrict commerce. This produced a conteſt between the old council at New-Orleans, and Don Ulloa; which ſtate of diſtraction continued, till the arrival of the Spaniſh governor O Riley, in 1769, who took poſſeſſion of the country for Spain.

Of the Tranſfer of Louiſiana to the United States. During the revolutionary war in the United States, Spain conquered Florida, and by the treaty of peace in 1783, that territory was confirmed to her. By the treaty of Ildefonſo, between France and Spain, October 1, 1800, it was ſtipulated that Louiſiana ſhould be ceded to France, on certain conditions, which were to be fulfilled by the French government, in regard to the Duke of Parma. That treaty was confirmed by another, concluded at Madrid, March 21, 1801. And by a treaty, concluded at Paris, April 30, 1803, between France and the United States, Louiſiana was ſold to the United States, for the ſum of fifteen millions of dollars.

Of the Bounds of Louiſiana. It has been already related that in the French king's grant of the trade of Louiſiana to Crozat, the patent comprehended the country between the Miſſiſippi, and the Aleganean Mountains, which now forms a part of the United States. But the claim of the French to that part of the country, eaſt of the Miſſiſippi, was ill founded, and never admitted by the

Britiſh nation; and at the peace in 1763 Louiſiana was limited to the country weſt of the Miſſiſippi, and of the Ibbervill. It is however aſſerted that the United States will claim to extend the country to the river Perdigo, eaſt of the Mobill, the limit of Louiſiana, under the French government. On the South, the bay of Mexico is the boundary of the country, and on the weſt, New Mexico, or a Spaniſh Province, called Taxus.

Of the Extent. As the northern limit of Louiſiana is not fixed, and the eaſtern and weſtern, not well aſcertained, the extent of this territory cannot be defined. From the bay of Mexico to the confluence of the Miſſorie with the Miſſiſippi is nearly ſix hundred miles; and if the mean bredth of the province ſhould prove to be two hundred, the area would contain one hundred and twenty thouſand ſquare miles, and ſeventy ſix millions, eight hundred thouſand acres, which would lie on the ſouth of the Miſſorie.

Face of the Country. The land from the entrance of the Miſſiſippi into the bay of Mexico, northerly about two hundred and thirty miles, is low, and ſuppoſed to be chiefly formed by the earth protruded from the river by the violence of its current. This projection of earth forms, on the eaſt of the river, a tract, called New-Orleans, which, when the river is low, about eight or nine months in the year, is a peninſula, extending two hundred miles from North-weſt to South-eaſt, between the river, and the lakes Ponchartrain, and Maurepas; but when the river is ſwelled in the ſpring, the water runs in a channel or creek called Ibbervill, into theſe lakes, and thence into the ſea, and renders New-Orleans an Iſland.

Of the Weſtern bank of the Miſſiſippi. The land on the weſt ſide of the Miſſiſippi is low, but capable of cultivation, as far north as Cut Point, (Point Coupee) about one hundred and fifty miles above New-Orleans; from thence to Cape Girardo above the mouth of the Ohio, a diſtance of more than two hundred miles, the land is overflowed in the ſpring, to the diſtance of twenty-five or thirty miles

from the river, and of course is incapable of cultivation, or at least, unfit for settlements; as the water spreads over the whole from two to twelve feet deep.—To the northward and westward of this low tract, the land rises into hills and mountains, interspersed with extensive bottoms, and prairies, which are natural meadows without trees.

Of the Entrance of the Mississippi into the Ocean. The waters of this vast river, swelled annually in the spring to the highth of fifty-five feet above the level of low water, waft down immense quantities of trees, wood, vegetables and earthly particles which lodge on the banks or shoals at the place where they meet the waters of the ocean. By these means, a large tract of land has been formed at this point, and is gradually extended further and further into the bay of Mexico. In this tract of low ground, the river has worn or preserved several channels, some of which are dry at low water. Thus the channel called Ibbervill or Manshac has a considerable stream, when the river is high and carries a part of the flood into Lake Maurepas, and thence into Lake Ponchartrain, from whence it is conducted to the sea. Below New-Orleans is a channel at Plakemins, and at the extremity of the river, there are five channels or passes; the deepest of which has only sixteen feet of water. This is called the Balize or Baleze, which signifies a buoy or sea mark; but is applied in common language, to the principal channel or entrance into the river.

Of the Channels on the West. From the Mississippi, there issues on the west side, a channel called the Fork, (La Fourche) about seventy-five miles above New-Orleans. This channel is dry at low water, but during the freshets has a navigable stream, and forms an island of one hundred and seventy miles in length.—About two hundred miles above New-Orleans, issues another channel, called Chaffala, which affords boatable water at all times, if not obstructed by drift-wood, and during the swell of the river, it is navigable for vessels of considerable size. This river

washes the populous settlements of Appalusa and Attacapa, and enters the bay of Mexico at St. Bernards. The Mississippi therefore discharges its waters, during its rise in spring, by nine large channels, besides some smaller outlets.

Of the Soil. The soil of New-Orleans island, and of all the neighboring flat land, is very rich, especially along the banks of the rivers, and creeks, where its fertility appears to be inexhaustible. On the banks of the rivers, the land is capable of cultivation, and much of it is already cultivated; but from the margin of the river, it slopes into low swampy ground, too wet for cultivation, except for rice. This is the general character of the islands from the Baleze to Manshac, and from Lake Maurepas to the Chaffala river.

Of the Settlements. The chief settlements are on the banks of the Mississippi, and its outlets. The settlements on New-Orleans begin about forty miles from the Baleze, and extend along the margin of the river, in separate plantations, which front on the river, and run back from half a mile to a mile and a half, usually terminating in a cypress swamp.—The principal settlements are on the island of New-Orleans, on the Fork, the Chaffala, the Ibbervill or Manshac, at Baton, Cut Point, and on the Red river.

Of New-Orleans. New-Orleans, the chief town in Louisiana, is situated on the peninsula or island of the same name, which is two hundred miles in length and from two to twenty in bredth.—The town stands on the east margin of the Mississippi, near the middle of the peninsula, in 30 degrees of north latitude and 90 of west longitude. The town is regularly laid out in squares; the streets cross each other at right angles, and are thirty-two French feet wide. The houses are mostly of brick, many of them two and three stories high, and some of them elegant. The lower rooms are raised about eight feet from the ground, the ground rooms being the cellars; as subterraneous apartments would be filled with water. The town is a mile in length, and contains about ten thousand inhabitants.

Of the Public Buildings and Works. New-Orleans con-

tains a government house, stables and garden; a military hospital; a custom house; two large public warehouses; an extensive barrack; a prison; town house; market house and assembly room; a public school for the rudiments of the Spanish language; a cathedral church; a charitable hospital, with some houses belonging to it, and an annual revenue of fifteen hundred dollars. From this town, a canal is cut about a mile and a half, opening a water communication with a creek, which flows into the Ponchartrain. The canal is called by the name of a late governor, Carondelet. A bank has lately been established in this city.

Of the Chief Rivers in Louisiana. Red river which enters the Mississippi three miles above Chaffala, is said to be a thousand miles in length, and a great part of that distance navigable or boatable. On its banks are extensive intervals of very rich land, and considerable settlements with the village of Nachitoches. The Arkansaw is a still larger river, with a navigable and boatable stream.—Above these is the Missorie, a large, if not the principal branch of the Mississippi. It has been explored more than a thousand miles, but not to its sources. Besides these, there is Black river, a branch of Red river which is boatable for some hundred miles, especially its main branch Washeta. The Osage, Kanza, Shallow river and many other streams water this territory, but their size and courses are little known.

Of the Productions. The trees of natural growth in Louisiana are the same as on the east side of the Mississippi, within the United States. The wild animals are also the same; and the forests are full of the European breed of cattle in a wild state. The cultivated plants are also the same. The principal plants cultivated for export are cotton, rice, tobacco, indigo and the sugar cane. The cane will thrive without much danger from the frost, as far north as Manshac. The lands contiguous to Red river produce tobacco of the best kind and in vast abundance. They produce also, as a common crop, from eighty to one hundred bushels of maiz. Below Natchez, the low ground

on both sides of the Mississippi, and on the banks of all the large rivers and creeks, are covered with wild canes or reeds from twenty to thirty five feet high.

Of the Minerals. In the high lands, two or three hundred miles west of the Mississippi, near the Missorie, and *Red* river, there is native salt, and numerous salt springs which may supply that necessary commodity in inexhaustible quantities. Many of these springs are near Nachitoches, and occasion the brackishness of the water used in that settlement. Very rich lead mines are wrought near the Missorie. Iron, copper and coal abound in the country; and the western bank of the Mississippi, above the Ohio, is a solid wall of lime stone, for a great distance. Slate and free stone are abundant in the hilly country; but near the Mississippi, there is no stone of any kind on either side from the Baleze to the Little White Pool, thirty miles above Natchez, and on the west side, the land is a swamp or low ground made by the river, to a still greater distance north.

Of the Commerce and Exports. A considerable trade with New-Orleans has been carried on by the nation to which Louisiana has belonged; and within a few years, the United States have had no small share of the commerce. In the year 1802, there entered the Mississippi, two hundred and sixty eight vessels of which 170 were American, 97 Spanish, and one French, containing thirty four thousand tuns. Of these, 18 were public armed ships; the rest were merchantmen. The exports are cotton, sugar, rice, molasses, indigo, furs, peltry, tar, pitch, lumber, lead, flour, corn, horses and cattle. In 1802, the exports amounted to more than two millions of dollars, and the imports to two millions and a half.

Of the Manufactures. Few articles are manufactured in this province. A few cotton cloths are made, or coarse cloths consisting of wool and cotton, to clothe the slaves in the interior country. In New-Orleans are carried on some of the necessary handicraft occupations; and some cordage, shot, and hair powder are manufactured. There

is also one sugar refinery, and in the neighboring country, twelve distilleries of rum.

Of the Population. The whole population of Louisiana, including Pensacola and Natchez amounted in 1802, to forty-two thousand. But the returns are supposed to underrate the real number; and from respectable authorities, the actual number of whites is supposed to be fifty thousand, and of the blacks, thirty-nine thousand. The militia amounted to five thousand and five hundred men, or as some allege to ten thousand. The inhabitants are mostly French; partly from France, and partly from Nova Scotia. The latter are the remains of the Arcadians, sent by general Lawrence to the southern colonies, now states, who removed from thence to Hispaniola, and lately to Louisiana. There are also some Germans settled along the Mississippi, on both sides, near New-Orleans.

Of the Former Government of Louisiana. While Louisiana was under the dominion of France, it was governed by certain officers appointed by the king, in the manner of other colonies. After Spain became possessed of this territory, the regulations of the French government were either abolished, or gradually superseded by new laws and orders of the Spanish governors. The province was placed under a governor, an intendant, certain alcades or judges, and commandants of districts. An ecclesiastic tribunal had jurisdiction over the church; the inhabitants being mostly Catholics.

Of the Transfer of Jurisdiction. The treaty between France and the United States, by which Louisiana was conveyed to the latter, having been duly ratified by the President and senate, and a law being passed by congress, making provision to carry the treaty into effect, measures were taken to obtain possession of the province. A governor was appointed, and a body of troops ordered to assist in the act of taking possession. To accommodate the act of taking possession to the treaties by which the right had been conveyed, the province was first surrendered to the French prefect, as the representative of the nation,

in conformity with the treaty of Ildefonso. After this preliminary step, and other necessary preparations, the governor, and the commander in chief of the American troops with a ceremony due to the important transaction, took formal possession of Louisiana, from the French agent, on the 20th day of December, 1803; and the American flag was displayed in New-Orleans, as an emblem of the sovereignty of the United States.

Of the present Government. By an act of Congress of March 1804, Louisiana is divided into two territories, Orleans and Louisiana. Orleans comprehends all the country east of the Mississippi, and on the west of that river, all the land south of the thirty-third degree of latitude. Over this territory, a governor is appointed by the President of the United States, for three years, who constitutes the executive power. A secretary is appointed for four years; but both officers are removable by the President. A council of thirteen persons, to be appointed annually by the President, from among the freeholders of the territory, forms the legislative power. The judiciary consists of a superior court and inferior courts to be ordained by the legislature. The trial by jury is established in cases of capital crimes, and in other cases, civil and criminal, in the superior court, if either party requires it.—The judges, attorney, marshal, and general officers of the militia are appointed by the President.

Of the other Division. The northern part of the country is constituted a separate territory, and called the district of Louisiana. It is placed under the jurisdiction of the governor of Indiana; who, with the judges of the latter territory, is authorized to establish inferior courts in Louisiana, and make laws for the government of the inhabitants. A district court is established at Orleans, and such of the laws of the United States as are applicable to the condition of the inhabitants, are extended to the whole country. Perfect freedom of religion is guaranted; a *militia* is constituted, and the importation of slaves prohibited.

SECTION XX.

Constitution of the United States.

Of *the Legislature.*

THE legislative power of the United States is vested in a congress, consisting of two houses or branches, a senate and a house of representatives. The members of the house of representatives are chosen once in two years, by the persons who are qualified to vote for members of the most numerous branch of the legislature in each state. To be entitled to a seat in this house, a person must have attained to the age of twenty-five years, been a citizen of the United States for seven years, and be an inhabitant of the state in which he is chosen.

Of *the Senate.* The senate consists of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature for six years. The senate is divided into three classes, the seats of one of which are vacated every second year. If a vacancy happens during the recess of the legislature, the executive of the state makes a temporary appointment of a senator, until the next meeting of the legislature. A senator must have attained the age of thirty years, been a citizen of the United States nine years, and be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen.

Of *the Powers of the two Houses.* The house of representatives choose their own speaker and other officers, and have the exclusive power of impeaching public officers, and originating bills for raising a revenue. The vice president of the United States is president of the senate; but the other officers are chosen by the senate. The senate tries all impeachments, each house determines the validity of the elections and qualifications of its own members, forms its own rules, and keeps a journal of its proceedings. The members are privileged from arrest while attending on the session, going to or returning from the same, except for treason, felony or breach of the peace.

Of *the Powers of Congress.* The congress of the United

States have power to make and enforce all laws which are neceſſary for the general welfare—as to lay and collect taxes, impoſts, and excises; borrow money, regulate commerce, eſtabliſh uniform rules of naturalization, coin money, eſtabliſh poſt-roads and poſt-offices, promote the arts and ſciences, inſtitute tribunals, inferior to the ſupreme court, define and puniſh piracy, declare war, and make repriſals, raiſe and ſupport armies, provide a navy, regulate the militia, and to make all laws neceſſary to carry theſe powers into effect.

Of *Reſtrictions.* No bill of attainder or retroſpective law ſhall be paſſed; the writ of habeas corpus cannot be ſuſpended except in caſes of rebellion or invaſion; no direct tax can be laid, except according to a cenſus of the inhabitants; no duty can be laid on exports, no money can be drawn from the treaſury, unleſs appropriated by law; no title of nobility can be granted, nor can any public officer, without the conſent of congreſs, accept of any preſent or title from any foreign prince or ſtate. The ſtates are reſtrained from emitting bills of credit, from making any thing but gold or ſilver a tender for debts, and from paſſing any law impairing private contracts.

Of *the Executive.* The executive power of the United States is veſted in a preſident, who holds his office for four years. To qualify a man for preſident, he muſt have been a citizen at the adoption of the conſtitution, or muſt be a native of the United States; he muſt have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a reſident within the United States. The preſident and vice preſident are choſen by electors deſignated in ſuch a manner as the legiſlature of each ſtate ſhall direct. The number of electors in each ſtate is equal to the whole number of ſenators and repreſentatives.

Of *the Powers of the Preſident.* The preſident of the United States is commander in chief of the army and navy, and of the militia when in actual ſervice. He grants *reprieves* and pardons; nominates, and with the conſent of *the ſenate,* appoints ambaſſadors, judges and other officers;

and with the advice and consent of the senate, forms treaties, provided two thirds of the senate agree. He fills vacancies in offices which happen during the recess of the senate. He convenes the congress on extraordinary occasions; receives foreign ministers, gives information to congress of the state of public affairs, and in general takes care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Of the Judiciary. The judiciary of the United States consists of one supreme court, and such inferior courts as the congress shall ordain. The judges are to hold their offices during good behaviour, and their salaries cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The judicial power of these courts extends to all cases in law and equity, arising under the constitution, or laws of the United States, and under treaties; to cases of public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between the states, and in which the United States are a party; between a state and citizen of another state, and between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming under grants of different states; and to causes between one of the states or American citizen and a foreign state or citizen.

Of Rights and Immunities. In all criminal trials except impeachment, the trial by jury is guaranteed to the accused. Treason is restricted to the simple acts of levying war against the United States, and adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort; and no person can be convicted, but by two witnesses to the same act, or by confession in open court. A conviction of treason is not followed by a corruption of blood, to disinherit the heirs of the criminal, nor by a forfeiture of estate except during the life of the offender. The citizens of each state are entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states. Congress may admit new states into the union, and the national compact guarantees to each state, a republican form of government, together with protection from foreign invasion and domestic violence.

CONCLUSION.

General Views of the Inhabitants of the United States.

Of the Population.

THE original ſettlers of Virginia and New-England, were almoſt all natives of England—thoſe of New-York were natives of Holland and other parts of the Netherlands—a body of Swedes planted the firſt colony on the Delaware, where their deſcendants are ſtill found, though few of them unmixed with the progeny of other ſettlers. Maryland was originally peopled by emigrants from Ireland; the Carolinas and Georgia, by emigrants from England, Scotland and Germany; and Pennſylvania, from England, Ireland and Germany. To theſe original ſettlers are to be added the Africans, who were imported for the purpoſe of cultivating the plantations of the ſouthern ſettlers and for domeſtic ſervants.

Of the Numbers of People. The inhabitants of the United States, excluſive of ſome tribes of Indians not enumerated, amounted in 1800, to *five millions three hundred and five thouſand.* Of this number a million are Africans and their deſcendants; and eight hundred and ninety-three thouſand are ſlaves. The population of the United States, according to the increaſe of the laſt ten years, as exhibited by the cenſus, doubles in twenty-eight years.—The population of the northern ſtates, doubles in leſs than twenty-five years, by natural means. But this increaſe is conſiderably accelerated by migrations from Europe.

Of the Subſiſtence. The firſt ſettlers for a few years, imported no ſmall portion of their food from Europe; but ſoon become accuſtomed to the uſe of maiz, which they found among the natives, from whom they learnt the mode of cultivating it, and ſeveral ways of dreſſing it for *food.* Some of the diſhes which are ſtill favorites on our *tables*, as ſamp, ſuccotaſh and hommony, were derived *from* the indians, and the hoe cake, ſo convenient on a

journey in a wilderneſs, often ſuſtained our anceſtors in their expeditions through the foreſt, in war or in traveling. But wheat, and other grains, together with eſculent roots, were ſoon cultivated ſo as to furniſh an ample ſupply of food. The potatoe, however, though originally an American root, was not cultivated in the Engliſh colonies till within about ſeventy years. Many perſons are ſtill living who never ſaw a potatoe till they were twenty years old. Tea and coffee were of later introduction; indeed coffee was little uſed till the revolution.

Of Clothing. The clothing of the firſt ſettlers was all of foreign fabric; and ſo is all the cloth of fine texture, uſed in the United States at this time. The richneſs and cheapneſs of the lands in America, have made the people almoſt wholly agricultural; and the fruits of the earth are exchanged with foreign nations for their manufactures. But as without manufactures, many female hands would be unemployed, moſt of the farmers raiſe a ſmall quantity of flax, cotton or wool, which is wrought into coarſe cloths for common uſe. Manufactures however are more and more attended to, as the people multiply and their wants increaſe; or as the prices of foreign manufactures are enhanced.

Of Luxuries. Before the revolution, luxury was limited to the ſouthern colonies, and a few commercial towns in the northern. The food of the yeomanry of the country was almoſt wholly of their own production, as was moſt of their common clothing. Carriages were very rare in New-England, in the middle of the laſt century. The firſt chaiſe ſeen in New-Haven was introduced in the year 1740, and at that time there were no more than eleven houſes in the town with ſaſh lights. Boots were worn by few perſons, before the revolution, and gold watches were extremely rare, till within fifteen years.

Of Amuſements. Dancing has always been a favourite amuſement in this country. Young people in every town and village, collect for the purpoſe on various occaſions, *and eſpecially in* New-England, *at the* General Elections, *and at the* annual Thankſgiving. In the large towns, re-

gular aſſemblies are a part of the winter entertainments. Cards and back-gammon, form a part of the common diverſions, and cheſs begins to be faſhionable. Hunting is practiſed in a few places; and horſe-races in the middle and ſouthern ſtates, are conſidered as the moſt intereſting public entertainments. They are held regularly in ſpring and autumn, and are the general reſort of faſhionable people from all the neighbouring country. Among the yeomanry, games with a ball, eſpecially cricket, are very common. Formerly wreſtling, was very common among the young men, who ſtudied it with the aſſiduity beſtowed in ſome countries on fencing; but the practice is nearly obſolete.

Of the Perſons and Character of the Inhabitants. The inhabitants of the northern ſtates are generally tall, bony and muſcular; and leſs corpulent than their Engliſh anceſtors. They are remarkable for their induſtry, invention and perſeverance. They make the moſt diligent farmers and mechanics—and the moſt active, bold and hardy ſeamen on earth. They are diſtinguiſhed for their habits of ſubordination to parental and civil authority, which render them peacable, obliging and hoſpitable; but educated in perfect freedom, and with a ſtrong ſenſe of perſonal independence, they ſpurn at every aſſumption of ſuperiority, and treat with contempt and deteſtation, any man who is overbearing in his manners. The vices of drunkenneſs, tipling, gambling, trickiſhneſs in mutual dealings, profanity and the like, are found among the more corrupt members of the community. But the great body of the people, who are freeholders, with eſtates in fee which furniſh them with means of ſubſiſtence, maintain the character of good ſenſe, diſcernment and pure morals; living in the conſtant attendance upon religious worſhip, and adorning their profeſſion of chriſtians, by a correſpondent practice.

THE

FAREWELL ADDRESS

OF

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

Friends and Fellow-Citizens,

THE period for a new election of a citizen, to administer the executive government of the United States, being not for distant, and the time actually arrived, when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom a choice is to be made. I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured, that this resolution has not been taken, without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest; no deficiency of grateful respect, for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

2. The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in, the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped, that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of our affairs with foreign nations, and the

unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

3. I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty, or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

4. The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust, were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say, that I have with good intentions, contributed towards the organization and administration of the government, the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious, in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to diffidence of myself; and, every day, the encreasing weight of years admonishes me more and more that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome. Satisfied that if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

5. In looking forward to the moment, which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country, for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the stedfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from *these services*, let it always be remembered to your praise *and as* an instructive example in our annals, that under *circumstances* in which the passions, agitated in every di-

rection, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances sometimes dubious—vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging—in situations in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism—the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans by which they were effected.

6. Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave, as a strong incitement to unceasing vows that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its benificence—that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual—that the free constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained—that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue—that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection and the adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

7. Here, perhaps I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger, natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments; which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all important to the permanency of your felicity as a People. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motives to bias his council. Nor can I forget as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion. Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

8. *The unity* of government which constitutes you one *people is also* now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is

main pillar in the edifice of your real independence, the support of your tranquility at home, your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee, that from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth; as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment, that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national Union, to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual and immoveable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the Palladium of your political safety and prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country *from* the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

9. For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of *American*, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits and political principles. You have in a common cause fought and triumphed together; the Independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint councils, and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings and successes. But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply *more* immediately to your interest—Here every portion

of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the Union of the whole.

10. The *North*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *South*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds in the productions of the latter, great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *South*, in the same intercourse, benefiting by the agency of the *North*, sees its agriculture grow and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *North*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated: and while it contributes, in different ways, to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The *East*, in a like intercourse with the *West*, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communications, by land and water, will more and more find a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *West* derives from the *East* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort —and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the *secure* enjoyment of indispensible *outlets* for its own productions to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest as ONE NATION. Any other tenure by which the *West* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connection with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

11. While then every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in Union, all the parties combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations; and, what is of inestimable value! they must derive from Union an exemption from those broils and wars be

tween themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries, not tied together by the same government: which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce; but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments and intrigues would stimulate and embitter.—Hence likewise they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments, which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to Republican Liberty; in this sense it is, that your Union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

12. These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the *Union* as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt, whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorised to hope that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. 'Tis well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to Union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those, who in any quarter may endeavour to weaken its bands.

13. In contemplating the causes which may disturb our Union, it occurs as a matter of serious concern, that any ground should have been furnished for characterising parties by *geographical* discriminations—*northern* and *southern*—*Atlantic* and *western*; whence designing men may endeavor to excite a belief that there is a real difference of local interests and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence, within particular districts, is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jeal-

ousies and heart burnings which spring from these misrepresentations: they tend to render alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head: they have seen, in the negociation by the Executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the Senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a policy in the General Government and in the Atlantic States, unfriendly to their interests in regard to the *Mississippi*: they have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties, that with Great-Britain and that with Spain, which secure to them every thing they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the UNION by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren, and connect them with aliens?

14. To the efficacy and permanency of your Union, a government for the whole is indispensable—No alliances, however strict, between the parts, can be an adequate substitute: they must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which all alliances in all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former, for an intimate Union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of our own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the distribution of its powers, uniting security with energy, and containing within itself a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the funda-

mental maxims of true Liberty. The basis of our political systems is the right of the people to make and alter their Constitutions of Government—But, the constitution which at any time exists till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

15. All obstructions to the execution of the Laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, controul, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force—to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small but artful and enterprising minority of the community; and, according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans digested by common councils, and modified by mutual interests. However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely in the course of time and things to become potent engines, by which cunning, ambitious and unprincipled men will be enabled to subvert the power of the people, and to usurp to themselves the reins of government; destroying afterwards the very engines which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

16. Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite, not only that you speedily discountenance irregular oppositions to its acknowledged authority, but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles however specious the pretexts. One method of assault may be to effect in the forms of the constitution alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown.

In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at leaſt as neceſſary to fix the true character of governments, as of other human inſtitutions—that experience is the ſureſt ſtandard, by which to teſt the real tendency of the exiſting conſtitution of a country—that facility in changes upon the credit of mere hypotheſis and opinion, expoſes to perpetual change, from the endleſs variety of hypotheſis and opinion; and remember, eſpecially, that for the efficient management of your common intereſts, in a country ſo extenſive as ours, a government of as much vigor as is conſiſtent with the perfect ſecurity of liberty, is indiſpenſable. Liberty itſelf will find in ſuch a government, with powers properly diſtributed and adjuſted, its ſureſt guardian. It is, indeed, little elſe than a name, where the government is too feeble to withſtand the enterpriſes of faction, to confine each member of the ſociety within the limits preſcribed by the laws, and to maintain all in the ſecure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of perſon and property.

17 I have already intimated to you, the danger of parties in the ſtate, with particular reference to the founding of them on geographical diſcriminations. Let me now take a more comprehenſive view, and warn you in the moſt ſolemn manner againſt the baneful effects of the ſpirit of party, generally. This ſpirit, unfortunately, is inſeparable from our nature, having its root in the ſtrongeſt paſſions of the human mind.—It exiſts under different ſhapes in all governments, more or leſs ſtifled, controled, or repreſſed; but in thoſe of the popular form, it is ſeen in its greateſt rankneſs, and is truly their worſt enemy. The alternate domination of one faction over another, ſharpened by the ſpirit of revenge, natural to party diſſention, which, in different ages and Countries, has perpetrated the moſt horrid enormities, is itſelf frightful deſpotiſm.—But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent deſpotiſm.—The diſorders and miſeries, which reſult, gradually incline the minds of men to ſeek ſecurity and *repoſe in the abſolute* power of an individual: and ſooner *or later the chief of* ſome prevailing faction, more able or

more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation, on the ruins of public Liberty.

18. Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind (which nevertheless ought not to be entirely out of sight) the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it. It serves always to distract the public councils and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another, foments occasionally riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which find a facilitated access to the government itself through the channels of party passions. Thus the policy and the will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

19. There is an opinion that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This within certain limits is probably true; and in governments of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favour, upon the spirit of party. But in those of a popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From their natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose. And there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be by force of public opinion, to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched; it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warming, it should consume.

20. It is important likewise, that the habits of thinking in a free country, should inspire caution, in those entrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres, avoiding in the exercise of the powers of one department to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus

create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power, and proneness to abuse it, which predominates in the human heart is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power, by dividing and distributing it into different depositaries, and constituting each the guardian of public weal against invasions by the others, has been evinced by experiments ancient and modern: some of them in our country and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers be in any particular wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment in the way which the constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation; for though this, in one instance, may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance in permanent evil any partial or transient benefit which the use can at any time yield.

21. Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports.——In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens.—The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connections with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation DESERT the oaths, which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice; and let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure; reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail *in exclusion* of religious principle. 'Tis substantially true, that virtue or morality is a necessary spring

of popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to it can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

22. Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge.—In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit, one method of preserving it is to use it as sparingly as possible; avoiding occasions of expence by cultivating peace; but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger, frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding likewise the accumulations of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expence, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind, that towards the payment of debts there must be revenue: to have revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment inseparable from the selection of the proper object (which is always a choice of difficulties) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue which the public exigencies may at any time dictate.

23. Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all; religion and morality enjoin this conduct; and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example

of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt that in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be, that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue? The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! is it rendered impossible by its vices?

24. In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others should be excluded; and that in place of them just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. The nation, which indulges towards another an habitual hatred, or an habitual fondness, is in some degree a slave. It is a slave to its animosity or to its affection, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and its interest. Antipathy in one nation against another disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable, when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute occur. Hence frequent collisions, obstinate, envenomed and bloody contests. The nation, prompted by ill will and resentment, sometimes impels to war the government, contrary to the best calculations of policy. The government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts through passion what reason would reject; at other times, it makes the animosity of the nation subservient to projects of hostility instigated by pride, ambition and other sinister and pernicious motives. The peace often, sometimes perhaps the liberty, of nations has been the victim.

25. So likewise a passionate attachment of one nation for another produces a variety of evils. Sympathy for the favorite nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary common interest, in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and

wars of the latter, without adequate inducement or justification. It leads also to the conceſſions to the favorite nation of privileges denied to others, which is apt doubly to injure the nation making the conceſſions; by unneceſſarily parting with what ought to have been retained; and by exciting jealouſy, ill will, and a diſpoſition to retaliate, in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld: And it gives to ambitious, corrupted, or deluded citizens (who devote themſelves to the favorite nation) facility to betray, or ſacrifice the intereſts of their own country, without odium, ſometimes even with popularity; gilding with the appearances of a virtuous ſenſe of obligation, a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable zeal for public good, the baſe or fooliſh compliances of ambition, corruption or infatuation.

26. As avenues to foreign influence in innumerable ways, ſuch attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent patriot. How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domeſtic factions, to practice the arts of ſeduction, to miſlead public opinion, to influence or awe the public councils! Such an attachment of ſmall or weak, towards a great and powerful nation, dooms the former to be the ſatellite of the latter. Againſt the inſidious wiles of foreign influence, (I conjure you to believe me, fellow citizens) the jealouſy of a free people ought to be CONSTANTLY awake; ſince hiſtory and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the moſt baneful foes of republican government. But that jealouſy, to be uſeful, muſt be impartial: elſe it becomes the inſtrument of the very influence to be avoided, inſtead of a defence againſt it.—Exceſſive partiality for one foreign nation, and exceſſive diſlike of another, cauſe thoſe whom they actuate, to ſee danger only on one ſide, and ſerve to veil and even ſecond the arts of influence on the other.—Real patriots, who may reſiſt the intrigues of the favorite, are liable to become ſuſpected and odious; *while its* tools and dupes uſurp the applauſe and confi*dence of the* people, to ſurrender their intereſts. The *great rule of* conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations

is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little POLITICAL connection as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith.—Here let us stop.

27. Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships, or enmities. Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off, when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality, we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

28. Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalship, interest, humor or caprice? 'Tis our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances, with any portion of the foreign world; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronising infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat it, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary, and would be unwise, to extend them. Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

29. Harmony, liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favors or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying by gentle means the streams of commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing, with powers so disposed, in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and mutual opinion will permit, but temporary, and liable to be from time to time abandoned or varied, as experience and circumstances shall dictate; constantly keeping in view, that 'tis folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another; that it must pay with a portion of its independence for whatever it may accept under that character; that by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favors, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect, or calculate upon real favors from nation to nation. 'Tis an illusion which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

30. In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old and affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish; that they will controul the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations: But, if I may even flatter myself, that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigues, and guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism; this hope will be a full recompence for the solicitude for your welfare, by which they have been dictated. How far, in the discharge of my official duties, I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records

and other evidences of my conduct must witness to you and to the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

31. In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my proclamation of the 22d of April, 1793, is the index to my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice and by that of your representatives in both houses of congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me; uninfluenced by any attempt to deter or divert me from it. After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest, to take a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it, with moderation, perseverance and firmness.

32. The consideration which respects the right to hold the conduct, it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe, that according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the belligerent powers, has been virtually admitted by all. The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without any thing more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose upon every nation, in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity towards other nations. The inducements of interest for observing that conduct will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me, a predominant motive has been to endeavor to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress without interruption, to that degree of strength and consistency, which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortunes.

33. Tho' in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error: I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mit-

gate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence; and that after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service, with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest. Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it, which is so natural to a man, who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations; I anticipate with pleasing expectation that retreat, in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow citizens, the benign influence of good laws under a free government—the ever favorite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labors and dangers.

G. WASHINGTON.

FINIS.

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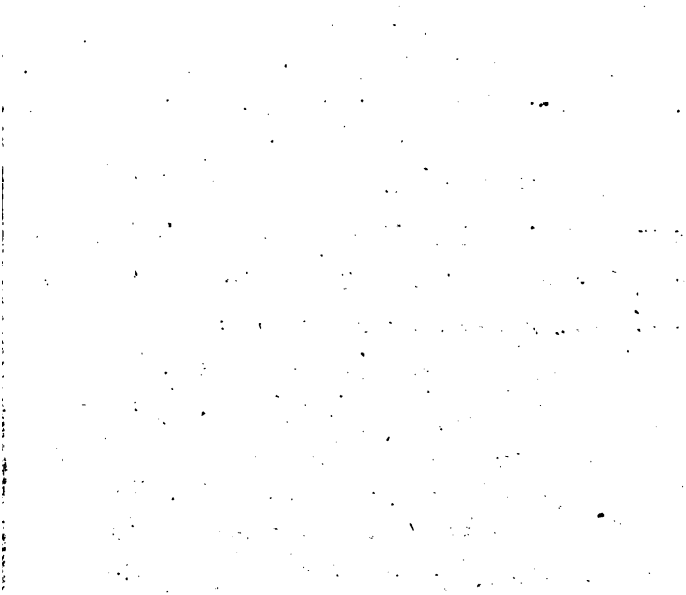

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